Modern time. [[1]](#footnote-1)

XXIII (V) period, the first period of modern time.

3rd period of the industrial society – 1870-1910 – period of imperialism.

33. America in 1870-1910.

A) North America in 1870-1910.

In Canada 1871 the British Columbia enters the Dominion of Canada with the condition of railway building. 1885 the Canadian Pacific Railway was built. 1882 the Northwest Territories were change into the districts. 1896 the “gold fever” in Yukon takes place. The Yukon Territory is formed 1898, Alberta and Saskatchewan -1905. Now the whole dominion is divided into provinces and territories. 1907 New Foundland receives the dominion status.

General Ulysses Grant (Republican party) ruled from 1869 till 1877. He saw the state as the provision office for war veterans. The USA survived their darkest corruption period. 1873 the economic crisis, connected with the building of railway, took place. A military dictatorship over the Southern “rebels” (till 1877) protects agents from the North (“Carpetbaggers”), who build the questionable governments and take the public money. The plantation owners, who have many tax debts, organize secret unions (Ku-Klux-Klan 1881, Lynch justice). The restrictions of election rights (intelligence tests) and race separation make the Afro-Americans again to the socially neglected class. The Tammany society in New York cheated the state over 60 mln. dollars in two years. The separated Liberal-Republicans (Carl Schurz) fight against the corruption of economy and politics.

1877 Democrat Rutherford Hayes was elected to President. He was an honest man, who made strong actions against the corruption among the officials. But his party did not have majority in the Congress. He called out the last troops from the South. Together with his finance minister Sherman he ordered the finances of the Union; the gold coins were made again and exchanged 1:1 into the paper Greenbacks, which lost 30% of their value in the time of the Civil War. Republicans Garfield (1881-1885) and Arthur (1889-93) were his successors.

Democrat Grover Cleveland ruled 1885-1889 and 1893-97. In his time the administration was reformed; some offices were made independent from the government change. 1877-89 the “booty system” was gradually liquidated. After the Civil Service Act (1883) the exams for officials were introduced. The corruption inside the government was decreased. 1890 the Mac-Kinley tariff was accepted, which brought the considerable increase of tax.

After Mac Kinley (1897-1901) Theodore Roosevelt (1901-1909) became President. He reformed administration and railway tariffs. He caused the state to intrude into the relations between the capital and workers. Taft (1909-13) became his successor.

The weakness of state favors striving for profit and gangsters, but also readiness for risk, energy and private initiative. Despite crises (1873, 1907) expansion of industry, technique, economics and the capital. From 1860 till 1914 the population grows from 31,3 till 91,9 mln. (with 21 mill. immigrants). The number of workers grows for 700, the production for 2000, the investment capital for 4000 percent. In the production of iron, coal, oil, copper, silver the USA are at the top; the power of steam is succeeded by the electricity; the protective taxes favor the building of monopolies. From the small beginnings trusts and huge concerns of “big business kings” like Astor (fur trade,) John D. Rockfeller (Standard Oil), Andrew Carnegie (Steel Corp.), Morgan, Vanderbilt (railway society). Henry Ford, a son of an Irish farmer, presents the conveyer car 1908. The conveyer can cheapen the costs and increase the production number. Besides it, Ford pays to his workers the high minimal loans (five doll. a day). 1913 two percents of Americans have 60 percents of the national income; Morgan and Rockfeller together control twenty percents of the people’s property (341 big enterprises with capital of 22 billion dollars). Edison and Nikola Tesla were famous inventors of the time.

Despite the danger to equality (race discrimination in the South) and freedom (capital concentration in the North) the general democratization makes success. The mass wares increase the prosperity; the industry magnates found universities, scientific institutes, museums, care organizations. In the agriculture the national Farmers’ Alliance is created 1873. But the Socialist Labor Party is dissolved after the splitting 1877, the program of the People’s Party (1891) is taken over by the Democrats. S.Gompers (1850-1924) is a leader of the American Federation of Labor (AFL), founded 1886, which becomes the strong support. In difference to Europe, the professional workers are its members (protection from the uneducated immigrants, becoming of high loans). Another workers’ organization is Industrial Workers of the World (IWW), founded 1905. They make hard fights for the loans (more than 1000 strikes a year). The government also has to fight against monopolies and exploitation.

1891 the homesteads’ law is abolished, therefore the end of the inside imperialism. Financial and economic crises influences the foreign policy. The new imperial power policy is proved morally because of the public opinion and is made for all with the economic means (dollar imperialism). The buying of Alaska from Russia for 7,2 mln. dollars is still criticized, but 1913 the fur trade and gold foundings bring 81 mln. dollars of gain 1913. In the Cuba revolt against Spain (1895), supported by the American volunteers, the Pulitzer and Hearst press influence the public opinion in such a way, that the “Maine incident” from Habana (explosion of an American war ship) causes the war with Spain of 1898 with occupation of Cuba. According to the peace of Paris, the USA get Guam and Puerto Rico. The fight between imperialists and their enemies (Carl Schurz) around Hawaii and Philippines is decided by McKinley in the favor of annexion under the pretext of the same Japanese, Russian and German intentions. But Theodore Roosevelt and Wilson support fully the imperialist policy. Under the intervention threats the capital investments are made to the finance protectorates over Central and South America (big stick politics). From 1889 the Panamerican conferences serve to the same goals. They have to secure the unity of the continent (the predomination of the union). 1910 the Panamerican Union is founded. The good relations to Germany (1889 struggle for Samoa, divided from 1899; trade concurrence) and Russia (stressing of the “open door” policy in East Asia) are cooled. The relation to the traditional British enemy develops in the other way. The founded by Lesseps Panama Society (1879) ends in the scandals. In the Venezuela frontier struggle with British Guayana (1895-1897) the UK agrees with the American demand for the common court. The British and Americans come near. Despite the Clayton-Bulwer treaty of 1850, which sees the international channel building, it is given to the USA (1901), the frontier between Alaska and Canada is delimitated 1903.

The decades after the end of the Civil War are a time of prosperity for American Jews of German origin, since many of them are army purveyors, manufacturers of and traders in uniforms, financiers, and money changers. Bankers such as Joseph Seligman (1820-1880) and his brothers, Jacob Schiff (1847-1920), and several others, play an important role in the economic history of the United States and of their own community. 1873-89: The organization of Reform Judaism is completed by the establishment of three institutions: the Union of American Hebrew Congregations, the Hebrew Union College, and the Central Conference of American Rabbis. 1880, in a Jewish population of approximately 250, 000, only one out of six American Jews was of East European extraction. Ashkenazi hazzanut first appears in the United States. 1881 the Jewish immigration from Eastern Europe begins. There are already 1,016,000 Jews in USA and Canada. 1885: The Pittsburgh Platform, composed by the radicals of the Reform movement. 1887: The Jewish Theological Seminary of America is founded in New York, dedicated to the “preservation in America of the knowledge and practice of historical Judaism”. It remains to this day a most important spiritual and educational center. At the end of the 19th century about one third of the Jewish workers in the large cities are invested in the garment industry; entrepreneurs and sub-contractors employ men, women and children in sweatshops situated in the city slums; a typical work week consists of seventy hours. 1897: Founded and edited by Abraham (Abe) Cahan, the Yiddish journal Forverts (“Advance”) soon becomes the organ of the Jewish workers’ movement and a powerful element within the community; the journal supports the Jewish trade unions but does not commit itself to any ideological dogma. 1902: The Jewish Theological Seminary, founded in 1887, is headed by Solomon Schechter who came to the US from Cambridge University; under his direction the Seminary becomes the national center for the ordination of modern rabbis, education of teachers for Jewish schools, and promotion of Jewish studies; Schechter also initiates a union of Conservative synagogues. 1910: Abraham Lincoln Felin, a department store owner in Boston, seeks the intervention of lawyer Louis Brandeis in the strike movement that agitates the Jewish garment industry in New York; Brandeis achieved a “protocol of permanent peace” between workers and employers according to the principle of the “preferential shop”, lowers the number of weekly working hours to an average of 50, abolishes the piece-work system in the sweatshops, and creates a system of arbitration by representatives of workers, employers, and independent persons; Brandeis’ system later spreads to other industries. From 1899 till 1914 from Russia 1,243,000 Jews emigrated to the USA; from Austro-Hungary – 260,000; from Rumania – 103,000; from Great Britain – 73,000; from Canada – 57,000; from the Ottoman Empire – 20,000; from Germany – 15,000; from others countries – 67,000. Despite the sometimes terrible conditions of works, the situation of Jews in the USA was much better than in Europe, where anti-Semitism grew strong.

1910 the population of the USA, which became the leading industrial power of the world, numbers already more than 90 mln. inhabitants. The new states are created: 1876 – Colorado; 1889 – North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, Washington; 1890 – Wyoming and Idaho; 1896 – Utah.

The native inhabitants of the continent – American Indians are damaged with the railway building and the expansion of the White settlement. Even the reservations, decreed for Indians by the government, are not respected. 1874 the Sioux in Dakota make strong resistance against the intruding gold searchers. 1876 the Sioux win over Custer in the battle at Little Bighorn. But the US cavalry, which was sent to protect the White settlers, beat the Sioux and Cheyenne. The Sioux chieftains Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse are persecuted and have finally to give over. In New Mexico and Arizona the chieftain of Apaches Geronimo make guerilla war till 1886. Many disappointed Indians initiate the Ghost Dance cult, which promises the liberation from the White supremacy. 1890 in Wounded Knee (South Dakota) the US troops kill more than 200 Sioux dancers. In the same year the Indian war was over; the west frontier was not more obligatory; the ‘Wild West” was conquered, but with high human losses.

1875 in New York the Theosophical Society is founded by the Russian immigrant H.P.Blavatsky (1831-91). Her main works, written in English – “Isis Unveiled” and ‘Secret Doctrine” try to make a synthesis of religion, philosophy and science, criticize Spiritualism, Catholic church, Free masons and materialism.

Famous realistic writers are satirist Mark Twain and Jack London.

In the whole, in the 3rd period of their history the USA develop intensively. The population of the country grows (also because of the big immigration). The USA becomes the first industrial power of the world; the concentration of capital (trusts and concerns) grows. It begins to lead an imperialistic policy (occupation of Cuba, Philippines and Hawaii). It is the most developed democratic country of the world with two-party system.

In difference to the USA, the neighbor Canada is a British dominion with big self-government.

B) Latin America in 1870-1910.

In Mexico President Porfirio Diáz (1877-80 and 1884-1911) is supported by Japan and the UK. 1883 the slavery is prohibited in the Spanish colonies. The Blacks become plantation workers or strengthen the city proletariat. 1898 first Syrian Jews immigrate to Mexico ; the literary weekly “El sábado secreto” (later “La luz del sábado”), dedicated to the language and history of Sephardi Jewry, appears in Mexico. 1908, June 24 Rabbi Martin Zielionka from El Paso, Texas, helps the Jews of Mexico organize their community.

 In Cuba the revolt against Spain (1895), supported by the USA, causes the Spanish-American War (1898). After the war, demobilized Jewish soldiers settle in Cuba. As protector of the new republic of Cuba the USA lease the fleet station and Guantánamo. 1906/07 the USA makes a financial inspection over the Dominican Republic. 1871 the first Jewish community (Shearith Israel) in Panama is founded by Jews from St. Thomas and Curaçao. 1903 the revolution in Panama, provoked by the USA, liberates the land from Columbia. After the ten years of building the Panama channel is opened (1914).

In Brasil till 1889 Pedro II rules. The abolition of slavery (1888) unites plantators and liberals for the overthrowing of monarchy (1888). The territory of the Republic of the United States of Brasil is extended till 1910 through the clever treaties. The Free State Acre exists from 1899 till 1903.

With a sea blockade (1902) the European powers defend the rights of foreigners, abused by Venezuelan President Castro (1899-1908). 1902-3: First acquisitions of land in Brazil, mostly in the south, in Rio Grande del Sul, where ICA buys 250,000 acres.

Peru is defeated in the Saltpeter War (1879-83). After this different military governments are changed.

In the Saltpeter War Bolivia loses the province Atacama and the access to the sea, but is not damaged because of the rich tin ores.

In Ecuador from from 1869 till 1875 president Moreno. After his murder fights between liberal and clerical groups take place.

Because of the great power policy of dictator F. Solano López (1862-1870) Paraguay loses over 70 percents of population in the Three lands War (1865-70).

1881 there are 35,000 Jews in South America. 1909, September 21 ‘Ezra”, the first Ashkenazi community organization, is founded in Montevideo.

In the Argentine the “national pedagogue” President Sarmiento (1868-74) favors schools and universities, immigration, railway and information service. 1876, October 19: Argentina completes legal reforms pertaining to immigration and land colonization; the new laws permit the establishment and consolidation of Jewish agricultural settlements. President Roca (1880-86/98-1904) ends the fight against the Pampas Indians and gets Patagonia with a court decision 1902. 1881, August 6 the government of Argentina appoints a special agent to attract Jewish immigrants from Russia. 1889 the large-scale immigration and agricultural settlement begins in Argentina. August 14: the ship “Weser” docks in Buenos Aires with 820 Jewish immigrants from Podolia (western Russia), most of them orthodox Jews. 1890, inspired by the’France Juive” of Edouard Drumont (1996), Argentinian José Maria Miró inserts several anti-Semitic passages in his novel “La Bursa”; originally published by the influential newspaper “La Nación”, the book has been reprinted many times. 1891 the ICA is established by Baron Maurice de Hirsch. Founding of Mauricio, ICA’s first colony. 1893-94: Nine gropus of fifty families each are transferred from Russia to Entre Rios Province in Argentina. 1896, April 21: Death of Baron Maurice de Hirsch. 1897 Zionist organizations in Argentina are formed. 1898 three Yiddish journals are published in Argentina. 1900: The first agricultural cooperative in Argentina is founded in the Jewish colony of Lucienville. From its beginnings to the present, Jewish agricultural settlement in Argentina is characterized by an important cooperative movement. 1904: Founding of the Baron Hirsch colony in the south of the Buenos Aires Province. 1909, May 1 the Jewish anarchist Simon Radowitzki attempts to assassinate the Argentinian chief of police Ramon Falcon. In August the “Juventud Israelita Argentina”, an organization of Jewish students, is founded. Its journal – “Juventud” is the organ of Argentinian Jewish intellectuals. 1910: The governor of Entre Rios declares: “We owe the prosperity of our province solely to the Jewish colonists”. Alberto Gerchunoff (1884-1950) publishes “Los Gauchos Judiós’ – a collection of articles describing in vivid colors the life of Jewish colonists in EntreRios during the last decades of the 19th century; congress held by representatives of the cooperative movement establishes the ‘Confederación Agricóla Israelita Argentina”. 1910, May 14 a pogrom is organized by a nationalist organization against the cultural institutions of the ‘Russian Jews” in Buenos Aires. The state develops to the first economic power of Latin America.

In the Saltpeter War Chile gets the sea supremacy and approves its conquests in the peace of Ancon. 1891 the congress revolution takes place. From this time the parliamentary government rules. In August 1909 the “Sociedad Unión Israelita de Chile” is founded.

Questions:

1. Describe the main lines of the USA development in this time.
2. What are the main events of Latin American history in this time?

34. Western Europe in 1870-1910.

A) The European culture in 1870-1910.

In this time many scientific discoveries are made.

In physics 1873 Maxwell develops the electromagnetic theory of light. 1895 X-rays are discovered by Röntgen; the theory of electrons is developed by Lorenz. In the next year the Uran rays are discovered by Bequerel. 1900 the theory of quants is developed by Max Planck. 1905 radioactivity is discovered by Rutherford. 1905 Alfred Einstein proposes the special relativity theory. This all testifies about the change to another plan of thinking – lower intuitive plan. In difference to the clear laws of nature, which were discovered by humankind beginning from Kepler and Newton, the new laws are complicated. They testify that the atom is divisible, energy and matery change into each other, which brings the world picture of the classical physics to the end.

In biology 1901 the teaching about mutations is developed by de Vries, 1904 chromosomes are discovered by Boveri. 1909 the psychology of animals is proven by Morgan; ecology exploration is made von Uexküll. 1910 the drosophila genetic is proven by Morgan. The ides of Darwin are developed by Ernst Haeckel (1834-1919).

In chemistry 1874 stereochemistry is developed by van ‘t Hoff, 1878 indigo synthesis is discovered by Bayer, 1898 radium – by P. and M.Curie, 1909 synthetic cauchuc is produced by Hofmann.

In medicin 1882 tuberculosis bacillus is discovered by Koch, 1883-84 diftheria bacillus - by Krebs and Löffler, 1885 asepsis – by Bergmann, 1892 difthery serum – by Behring, 1909 salvarsan – by Ehrlich and Hata, 1910 blood groups – by Moss.

Many inventions are made in technics, which testifies about the creative thinking of the humankind. 1876 fout tact engine is invented by Otto. 1879 electro locomotive – by Siemens; 1884 gasoline engine - by Daimler and Maybach; 1885 car– by Daimler and Benz; 1897 Diesel engine – by Diesel; 1900 dirigeable – by Zeppelin (proposed earlier by Konstantin Ziolkowsky); 1903 air plane flight is made by brothers Wright. 1876 telefone is invented by Bell and Gray; 1877 speaking machine – by Edison; 1897 wireless telegraph – by Marconi; 1903 picture telegraph – by Korn. 1881 autotypy is developed by Meisenbach; 1884 set machine – by Mergenthaler. 1871 Bromsilver plate is invented by Mardox and Eastman; 1895 cinema – by Lumière. 1907 concret making is invented by Edison. 1883 machine gun is invented by Maxim.

Arctis and Antarctis are explored. 1893-96 Nansen’s drift voyage with the “Frame” is made. 1903-6 North-West passage is discovered by Amundsen. 1909, April 6 Peary lands near the North pole. Greenland is explored by Mylius-Erichsen (1906-8) and Mikkelsen (1910). In Antarctis 1901-3 German South pole expedition under Drygalsky. 1902-4 Scott explores the Victoria Land. 1902-3 Nordenskjöld explores to the east of Louis-Philippe Land. 1902-3 Bruce explores the Wedell Sea. 1909 Schakleton comes close to the pole till 200 km.

In linguistics Sumerian language is proven by Weissbach.

In philosophy Frederic Nietzsche (1844-1900) criticizes the modern civilization. H.St.Chamberlain (1855-1927) develops the ideas of race struggle. Sociology is developed by Ferdinand Tönnies (1855-1936); Émile Durkheim (1858-1917); Max Weber (1864-1920) stresses the influence of Protestantism into the development of capitalism and tries to explore main sociological structures with the help of “ideal typical notions”. “Experimental” psychology is built by Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920) and Théodule Ribot (1839-1916). British society of psychic research is founded 1882. Wilhelm Dilthey (1833-1911) developes the cognitive psychology. The characterology is renewed by Ludwig Klages (1872-1956); Gustave Le Bon (1841-1931) explores the mass psychology. Psychoanalysis is developed by Sigmund Freud (1856-1919).

1878 William Booth founds the “Salvation army”. In Protestant theology Adolf von Harnack (1851-1930) separates the Jesus’ religion from old church dogma. Catholic church and Protestant orthodoxy defend themselves against the liberal theology. Pius X obliges the clergy to the ‘Anntimodernist oath” 1910. The forein mission is increased, but the European masses leave the church. Churches make big social activity. 1872 Frederick von Bodelschwingh (1831-1910) takes over the Betheler institutions (care about ill, diacony, workers’ colonies). 1877 Central union for social reform (Wagner) is founded. 1890 it is led further by Stoecker in Evangelic Socialist Congress. From 1882 Evangelic Workers’ unions are founded. Leo XIII recommends the organization of Catholic workers’ unions 1884.

1876 the I International is dissolved. But 1889 the II International is founded with the permanent bureau in Brussels. From 1890 May 1 is celebrated. Anarchists are excluded 1896, reformism is refused 1904.

1891 the peace bureau is founded in Bern. Hague peace conferences about disarmament are summoned 1899 and 1907. Prof. Landmasch (1853-1920) takes part at the Hague court 1901.

In the culture many new names appear. From realism it moves to the décadence in different branches (literature, art, music).In the art impressionism appears. Main cultural events are:

1870 begin of the Schliemann’s excavations in Troya.

1871 Darwin: “The descent of man”. Zola: “Les Rougon-Macquart I”. Busch: “Pious Helene”.

1872 D.F. Strauss: “The old and the new belief’. Daudet: “Tartarin”.

1875 Bizet: ‘Carmen”. Taine: “L’ancien régime”.

1877 Gobineau: “La Renaissance”.

1878 Wagner: “Parsifal”.

1879 Ibsen: “Puppet hostel”.

1880 Flaubert dies.

1881 Ibsen: “Ghosts”.

1882 Wildenbruch: “Carolings”.

1883 Richard Wagner dies. Nietzsche: ‘Zaratushtra”.

1884 Ibsen: ” Wild duck”.

1885 Victor Hugo dies.

1886 Nietzsche: “On the other side from good and evil”.

1887: Antoine: Théâtre libre. Strindberg: “The Father”.

1888 Fontane: “Irrungen, Wirrungen”.

1889 Free scene. Holz-Schlaf: “Papa Hamlet”. R. Strauss: “Don Juan”. Hauptmann: “Before sunset”. Liliencron: “Poems”.

1890 Wilde: “The Picture of Dorian Gray”. Hamsun: ‘Hunger”. Materlinck: “Princesse Maleine”. Mascagni; “Cavalleria rusticana”. Suderman: “The honor”.

1891 Wedekind: “ Awaikening of spring”.

1892 Hauptmann: ‘The weavers”. Maeterlinck; “Pelléas et Mélisande”.

1893 Hauptmann: “Hannele’s Ascension”. Scnitzler: ‘Anatol”.

1895 Fontane: “Effi Briest”. Shaw: “Candida”.

1896 Altenberg: ‘As I see it”. Bergson: ‘Matière et mémoire”.

1899 Shaw: “Caesar and Cleopatra’. Ibsen: “When we dead awaiken”.

1900 Nietzsche dies. Freud: “Traumdeutung”.

1901 Th.Mann: “Buddenbrooks”.

1902 Zola dies.

1903 Weininger: “Gender and character”.

1904 Wedekind: “Pandora’s box”.

1905 H.Mann: “Professor Unrat”.

1906 Ibsen dies. R. Strauss: “Salome’.

1908 Wilhelm Busch dies.

B) West European countries in 1870-1910.

1. Spain and Portugal in 1870-1910.

In Spain 1872-76 the 3rd Carlists’ war again Amadeus of Savoy, who proclaimed himself to the king, took place. In the same time the socialist revolts take place. 1873 the first republic is proclaimed, but the Bourbon rule is restaurated by Martinez de Campos (1831-1900). 1874-85 Alfons XII rules. 1876 the new constitution is accepted: the freedom of press and unions, but the abolishment of civil marriage and strengthening of the Catholic church. The liberals are led by Sagásta, the Conservatives – by Canovas del Castillo. Republican attempts, military mutinies, autonomy movement in Catalonia, tensions between capitalist circles and radical trade unions (syndicates). 1886-1931 Alfons XIII rules, till 1902 under the regency of queen widow Maria Christina of Austria. The revolt in Cuba, supported by the USA (1895), is extended to the Spanish-American war, which ends with the destruction or selling of the colonial empire (besides Africa), which existed almost 450 years. In the literature the critical self-evaluation in the literature through Unamuno (1864-1936), Martinez Ruiz, later Ortega y Gasset (1883-1955) etc. After 1900 Silvela, Maura and Dato are leaders of the Conservative, Canalejas and Romanones – of the Liberal side. 1904 Morocco treaty with France is concluded. 1909 the campaign against the Rif Kabyls; anarchist workers’ revolt in Barcelona.

In Portugal from 1861 till 1889 Luis I, then his son Carlos I rules. Two political parties: Conservatives and Progressists, the Liberals, fight for the political power in the land. The finances of empire are in the bad condition. 1890 the heavy prestige lose takes place: a British ultimatum demands giving out of colonial expansion for the connection of Angola and Moçambique. For this the British guaranty of colonies in the Windsor treaty 1899. After the leaders of both parties, the Conservative Riberio and the Liberal de Castro are dead, 1906-08 dictatorship of João Franco. In October 1908 in Lissabon both the king and the crown prince Luis were murdered. Manuel II became a king (1908-1910). 1910 the republic is proclaimed. The king’s family fled to England.

2. The UK in 1870-1910.

Gladstone forms four cabinets from 1867 till 1894. 1884 the third election reform is made: the land inhabitants get the right of voice (ca. 4 mln. active electors). 1874-80 the second cabinet of Disraeli rules. The imperialist policy begins; Gladstone tries to solve the Irish question. The Irish parliament under Stewart Parnell (1846-91) tries to get the Home Rule and founds the Irish land league 1879. Passive resistance against Boycott, English property administrator, is made. 1882 British state secretaries (Cavendish, Burke) are murdered in Dublin. Obstruction of Irish people in the parliament. Gladstone’s Home Rule Bills (1886/92) split the Liberal party and cause the overthrow the government. The United Irish League continues the fight for liberty.

1881 Marxist Social-Democratic Federation of Marx translator Hyndman is founded, 1883 the Fabian Society is founded by partyless socialist intellectuals around Sidney Webb (1859-1947) and G.B.Shaw (1856-1950). With the Independent Labour Party (1893) of Keir Hardie (1856-1915) they found the Labour Representation Committee, from which the Labour Party originates (chairman Ramsay MacDonald) 1906.

After the death of queen Victoria (1901) Edward VII rules (1901-10, 60 years old). 1905 Liberals win with the help of Labour Representation Committee. The social measures (old men pension 1908, the ill and unemployed insurance 1911), fleet construction and army reform of the war minister Richard Burdon Viscount Haldane (1905-1911, 1856-1928) burden the budget. The upper house does not support the “budget of 1909” of the treasury chancellor David Lloyd George (1863-1945) in the cabinet of Asquith (1908-16). Albeit the land law of 1903 allows to the Irish leasers to become the land possessors, but the Sinn-Féin (“we ourselves”) party organizes the national revolt.

In the economy the increase of population, the land escape and the growth of cities last. Despite the increasing concurrence (the USA, Germany, Japan), the UK keeps the free trade, it makes 46 percent of the world trade tonnage and doubles the foreign trade with passive trade, but active paying balance because of international security and bank deeds till 1913. The investment capital in the Empire increases, the British leadership in the world market is secured with the building of the Empire. Economical and power political interests are connected with the influenced by Puritanism conviction to be obliged to promote progress and civilization in the world. Thomas Carlyle (1795-1881) founds the British world mission (exclusivity of nation). Sir Charles Dirke (1843-1911) makes a picture of the ‘Greater Britain” in the “world, daily becoming English”; Robert Seeley (1834-95) demand a planful “Expansion of England” (1883); Rudyard Kipling (1865-1936) speaks about the ‘burden of white man” and the British mission. The imperialism, propagated in the unions and newspapers, infects all classes. In his Crystal palace speech (1872) Disraeli attacks the colonial indifference of the Liberals (Gladstone). To secure the sea way to India the Egyptian Suez Channel shares are bought (1875). Queen Victoria, the empress of India from 1877, supports the Disraeli’s politics. 1878 Cyprus is bought. 1883 Egypt is occupied. Under the British protection the land is secure.

The Indian rand regions are built, the free parts of islands and islands in the Pacific are occupied. 1885-92, 1895-1902 the prime minister of Salisbury (1830-1903) makes the consequent politics of “Splendid isolation”, connected with the union of three (the Mediterranean treaty), the colonial tensions with France (Africa) and Russia (Asia). Pangermanist Colonial minister Joseph Chamberlain (1895-1903, 1836-1914) is dominating. He tries to make expansion into the free spaces: the growth of weapons for the fleet supremacy over the both sea powers (Two Power Standard). The strengthening of Empire through the leaving out of free trade to the favor of the imperial confederation of White colonies, bound through the crown, language and economic preferences (preference taxes, sterling gold money); the equalization with the USA in the Panama question and through the attempt too give over the ‘Splendid isolation”. 1898-1901 the talks about the union with the German Empire take place. Chamberlains’ plan of a British military and economic union causes his overthrow, but helps to promote the Entente policy and the Commonwealth thinking. 1886 the colonial exhibition in London takes place. 1887 the trade marks law is accepted: the land of origin have to be written at the wares. The law was mostly directed against the German wares and worsened the relations with Germany. From 1887 the colonial conferences (from 1907 Empire’s conferences) take part. 1901 the Commonwealth of Australia get the dominion status 1901; 1907 New Sealand and New Foundland as well as the South African under the Boer general Botha as prime minister 1910.

1. France in 1870-1910.

The Third Republic (1870-1910).

1st period (1870-1880):

The German-French War (1870/71).

The causes of the war are French prestige politics and fear for Prussian-German hegemonial policy (foreign minister Gramont). The pretexts are Spanish throne candidature and ‘Ems dépêche”; July 19 the war is declared to Prussia. Bismarck reaches the neutrality of the UK (informing about the Belgian compensation demand to France in 1866), Austria (Russia and Hungarian pressure) and Italy (Roman question). The advancing German troops attak (under the chief of General staff Heltmuth von Moltke); after the hard fights surrounding and capitulation of Bazaine’s army (173,000) in Metz (October, 27). September 1, 1870 the battle at Sedan takes place: capitulation of Mac Mahon army (84,000 people) and imprisonment of Napoleon III, who is brought to the castle Wilhelmshöhe at Kassel. At the initiative of German Republicans Favre (1809-80) and Gambetta (1838-82) the Third republic is proclaimed (September 4, 1870) and a government of the national defence is built. The empress flied to England and met there with her son. In September the siege of Paris begins: Gambetta flies in the air balloon and organizes the people’s war with franctireurs (weaponed civilians). The collected anew additional armies are beaten and expelled over the frontier of Switzerland. Paris capitulates (January 1871). The national assembly in Bordeaux (February 1871) elects Thiers to the ‘chef of executive”. According to the preliminary piece on Versaiiles: France loses Elsaß-Lotharingia; the war compensation (5 Billions Francs) and the occupation of East France. In March-May 1871 revolt of Paris Commune takes place. The radical seizing of power by Communists and Socialists (Communards) is suppressed by Mac Mahon in the “bloody week” (30 000 dead). May 10, 1871: the peace of Frankfurt am Main. As result, the European state system is extended (Italy and Germany appeared), France having lost its hegemony; the German-French opposition becomes deeper.

President Thiers (1871-73) reaches that the German troops leave France the before of time after the payment of war compensation, but the Conservative majority (splitten into Legitimists, Orléanists and Bonapartists) elects Marchal Mac Mahon (1808-1893) as the “Lieutenant of monarchie” to the President of Republic (1873-79). But a Monarchist restauration does not take place, because the last Bourbon pretendent Count de Chambord does not want to accept the tricolore. 1875 the Third Republic is proclaimed. According to the constitution, the general election right for the chamber of deputies is prescribed. Together with the senate in builds the national assembly (legislative), which elects the President (executive) for seven years, controls the ministeries and can change the constitution. Because of splitting of chamber into the personally painted parties withot stabile programs the instabile majorities and governments (fifty cabinets till 1914) are built. But the ‘republic of comerades” (de Jouvenel) is established gradually because of a stabile constitution. The “state od lawers, writers and professors” gets success in the foreign policy. 1876 the Republican election success of the great bourgeoisie Opportunists (Gambetta, Ferry) is fought by the small bourgeois Radicals under Georges Clemenceau (1841-1929). In the fight about free nomination of ministers the chamber is dissolved, but the “coup d’etat” of Mac Mahon strengthens only the Republicans; from this time parliamentary cabinet buildings are made only after the each chamber majority.

2nd period (1880-1890):

President Jules Grévy (1807-91, 1879-87) follows a policy of the “imside collection” with Laicist-anticlerical reforms: 1880 the “communards” are amnested; church orders (Jesuits) are restricted; 1881 freedom of meetings and press; 1882 nationalisation of people’s schools, 1884 civil marriage, liberal municipial order. The indignation about corrupt politicians, growing demand for a “strong government” and revanche demands of Patriots’ league, founded 1882 by Déroulède (1846-1914), cause the election success of Monarchists 1885. War minister Georges Boulanger (1837-91) collects Conservatives, Radicals and Bonapartists in the authoritarian-nationalist movement of the Boulangism (1886-89). A Republican election success prevents the dictatorship; flight of Boulanger and his suicide in Brussels follow. 1889 Paris world exhibition (with the 300m high Tour-Eiffel) takes place. The workers’ fight is led by Anarchists. The syndicalism is unpolitical, iinimical to the state and anti-military. He refuses from work treaties, social reforms and parliaments in the hope to reach the classless society through spontaneous “direct actions”. From 1882 from “work burses” (local cartelles) and professional land unions the Confédération Général du Travail (CGT) is built 1895. 1909 Léon Jouhaux (1879-1954) heads it from 1909. The Social-Democratic and yellow syndicates appear too (from 1899 in the Schneider-Creusot works). Marxist Guesde leads the French Workers’ party 1879, from which 1882 the moderated Possibilists and 1890 the Allemanists are splitten.

3rd period (1890-1900):

From 1890 the Parti Socialiste Révolutionnaire of Blanqui (1805-1881) supporters exists, who was an inspirator of the Commune revolt of 1871 and editor of ‘Ni Dieu Ni Maître”. 1892 the protection tax policy: Pope Leo XIII recommends to the Catholics to cooperate with the Republic. 1892/3 Panama scandal takes place: the share society, founded by Lesseps, is bancrut, the channel building, began 1881, is stopped. 1894 the Anarchist attept to murder the President Carnot (from 1887) is made. The Socialists are organized in syndicates, in the General Workers’ Union (CGT) 1895, in the Revolutionary Workers’ Party (1890) and in the party of the Radical Socialists (1893). The fight between left and right parties in the Dreyfus affair (1894-1906) splits the nation. Against the condemnation of Jewish officer Alfred Dreyfus (1859 till 1835) by a military court at the ground of falsified documents (live-long exile because of spionage) the Bloc républicain 1898: Emile Zola (“J’accuse”, 1898), Clemenceau, the Socialist Jean Jaurès (1859-1914, founds the Unity party SFIO 1905, murderd 1914) demand the renewal of process. Charles Maurras (1868-1952) preaches “integral nationalism” against Germans, Protestants, Jews, against Romantics (Rousseau), people’s rights and republic. Together with Léon Daudet (1867-1942) he founds the nationalist Action française 1898 and therefore sharpens the anticlerical course of left radical enemies. The uniting attempts of Socialist Jaurès have no success because of the participation of ‘ministeriell” Millerand in the government 1899, fought by the extremes (Blanquists, Marxists, Allemanists) under Guesde (1845-1922).

4th period (1900-1910):

 Under the cabinet Combes (1902-1905) the orders, monasteries, church schools are abolished, church propery is seized, break with the Vatican. 1904 the congrees of Amsterdam takes place: at the pressure of the II Internationale (Bebel’s proposal) the united Section française de l’internationale ouvrière (SFIO) is built 1905. It regulates its relations to the Syndicalists (Charta of Amiens, 1906), reaches no radical change of the social structure, but gets the influence upon the social policy. 1905 church and state are separated, made by the independent Socialist Aristide Briand (1862-1932) in the cabinet of Clemenceau (1906-09). With the rehabilitation of Dreyfus the civile power wins over the army. The social laws are built, but authoritarian fight against strikes takes place. The cabinet of Briand 1909 promisses “détente and liberation”, but the Radical Socialists are victorious.

Damaged with the defeat of 1871, government, generals and high financists follow an imperialist policy for security of the French position and power in Europe. A central colonial bureaucracy strives for the cultural eqalisation and military recruitment of the “coloured Frenchmen”. Bismarck promotes colonial expansion. In opposition there are small bourgeoisie and Radicals (Clemenceau). Protective customs (1892) favor peasants’ agriculture and heavy industry (Briey, Nancy, Longwy). But because of the absence of people’s growth and small coal mining the percentage in the world production of steel and iron decreases. Through his savings (rent capitalism) France becomes the ‘banker of the world”. Capital investments (colonies, Russia) are controlled with big banks. From 1880 the new colonial policy is led by prime minister Ferry (1832-93). The political isolation in Europe is dissolved after the retreat Bismarck’s. The colonial expansion is continued under President Faure (1895-99). Under the foreign minister Delcassé (1895-1905) secret treaty with Italy about Tripoli (1902) and Entente cordiale with England (1904) are concluded. In the time of the 1st Marocco crisis Prime Minister Rouvier causes the fall of Delcassé.

In the whole, the second macrostage of the French history begins from 1870 (The first one lasted from ca. 450 till 1870) . After the fall of Napoleon III the Third republic is established. It is ruled democratically and conducts the imperialist policy, but economically the potential of France is not so big as before, the population growth is stopped. The bankers play an important part now and credit other countries and colonies.

1. Germany in 1870-1910.

The second macrostage in the German history.

1 period – 1870-1878.

France (foreign minister Gramont) has fear for a Prussian hegemony in Europe. Despite the refisal of Leopold von Henzollern-Sigmaringen, the Spanish thron candidature causes the crisis: from prestige grounds Napoleon III demands a guaranty for refusal (talk of Benedetti and Wilhelm I in Bad Eims). After Bismark publishes the shortened “Ems dépêche”, France declares the war/ 1870/71 German-French War with the unexpected participation of South German states. Bismarck uses the German war mood for the founding of the (second) German Empire (1871) after treaties with the separate states. By Louis Ii of Bavaria (1864-86) in the name of princes January, 18 1871 Wilhelm I is proclaimed to the German Emperor in the Mirror Hall of Versailles.

According to the constitution, Germany is a federal state under hegemony of Prussia. The empire controls military forces, taxes, trade, traffic, post. The separate states (25: four kingdoms, six great duches, five duches, seven princedoms, three free states) have administration, justice, culture. Bavaria and Württemberg have reserved rights in military, post, taxes. Federal Council (Bundesrat) and parliament (Reichstag, 397 deputies) are main legislative power, Emperor and nominated by him imperial chanceller head the executive power. In opposition to the authoritarian state leadership Bismarck’s, the parliamentary parties do not use their possibilities. The budget law is inflated in the fight for the “iron budget” (1874) for the army through the compromise of septennat (the budget approvement for seven years). Till 1878 the National Liberals as the strongest faction and the Free Conservative (German Imperial party) work with Bismarck together. After 1878 – the German Conservative party (founded 1876), partly also the Center, lead by L.Windthorst (1812-1891). The enemies Bismarck’s are: Old Conservatives; the Liberal Democratic Progress party (from 1884 Free thinkers) under E.Richter (1838-1906); the Social-democrats, united with the Gotha Programm 1875 (A.Bebel, W.Liebknecht) to the Socialist Working party; the national minorities (Polish, Danes, Elsass-Lotharingians), and the Welfs. In the inside policy the law and economy are unified at the liberal principles ; 1875 imperial bank is founded; the post flourishes under H. von Stephan (1831-97). Till 1879 the unified law and court organization are created with the imperial court in Leipzig.

The conflict of the Prussian state (cult minister Falk till 1879) with the Catholic church (Culture fight, Kulturkampf) is expression of the contradiction of state pretense (Bismarck ideologically supported by the liberal movement (R. Virchow, 1821-1902), and the political Catholicism (Ultramontanism) from the unfallibility dogma of I Vatican council and the separation of Old Catholics. The attempt to subordinate the clergy as officials to the state, to break their connection to the curia and to the “Polish enemy of empire” did not come through because of the passive resistance of the clergy, the center and the church people. 1871 the “chancelry paragraph” against the political misuse pof the spiritual office. 1872 church care law; prohibition of the Jesuit order. 1873/74 May laws: state prescriptions for the education of clergy and about the church disciplinary power. 1874/75 civil marriage; laws about the suspending of salary etc. The reglamentations have no success, therefore the police fight was broken by Bismarck.

The stormy development of industry, trade, big banks in the “founders’ years” takes place; the French war compensation heats the “foundation fever” (1870-73 1018 new share societies), but it is succeded with the economic crisis of 1873 after the Vienna burse crash. Critics of the free trade, British industrial concurrence, Russian and American price pressure for the country grain cause the demand for the law protection of economics.

In the foreign policy Bismark secures the German empire with the equalization and moderation of European tensions and the defensive unions. The expected French revance policy is met through 1. Encircling (isolation) of France and 2. Protection of French republic and colonial policy. 1872 three emperors’ union is built for the defense against revolutionary dangers. In the “war in view” (1875) crisis (French armes’ rising) British and Russian (foreign minister Gorchakov till 1882) actions in Berlin against the presumed preparations of preventive war. Therefore Germany comes close to Austria (foreign minister Andrassy till 1879).

2 period 1878-1890.

Under Leo XIII (1878-1903) the equalization with church is made. The most culture fight laws are abolished till 1886, but the Catholis miscredit against the Protestant empire remains.

1878 Conservatives and Center support the transition to the protective customs. Because of the tax and customs law (1879) Bismarck gets independence from the parliament. The National Liberals are splitten and “union between heavy industry and big landownership”.The murder attempt against emperor cause the Socialists’ law of 1878: the party press and organization are prohibited. Against imprisonments, expelling and siege situation the SPD defends through the strict discipline, party congresses in London and the Switxerland, illegal newspapers. The Christian-Socialist Workers’ party (against liberalism and Judaism) of the court preacher A.Stoecker (1835-1909) has no success. Positive fight against the Socialists is made through the social laws for the ill (1883), incident (1884), age and invalids’ security (1889): it is a greatest domestic political achievement Bismarcks’ with cooperation of Th.Lohmann (1831-1905). But there is no success; the SPD grows from election to election.

In the foreign policy after the Berlin congress (1878) Berlin and Vienna conclude the union of two 1879. After the Russian agreement the three emperors’ union is renewed 1881: neutrality in the fall of aggression of a fourth power. Italia (Crispi) causes the union of three 1882, but the Italian-Austrian tensions with Austria-Hungary is not removed. 1883 Rumania enters this union. 1882 the colonial union (Bennigsen, Rohlfs) and 1884 society for German colonization through Carl Peters (1856-1918), the “finder of German world policy”. 1884 three emperors meet in Skierniewice. It cannot solve the Russian-Austria-Hungary Balkans crisis. 1885-1887 the crisis of treaty work (Bulgaria conflict; French Boulanger movement) takes place. 1887 Bismarck tries to solve it with “back insurance treaty” with Russia (in the the additional protocol German support of the Russian sea straits policy). In the same year Bismarck promotes the Mediterranean treaty (Eastern union of the three) for the protection of Turkey and the status quo in the Mediterranean. 1887/89 England does not want to conclude a direct union with Berlin.

1888 Frederick III (56 years), the hope of Liberals, dies after a short time.

1888-1918 Wilhelm II is an emperor. Growing differences between the Emperor (29 years) and chanceller (75 years) end with the retirement Bismarcks’ (1890, died 1898). The grounds are on the one side, self-overestimation and personal government of the emperor; on the other side – chancellers’ keeping at the fight against the Socialists and at Russia in the foreign policy.

3 period -1890-1900.

The imperial chancellors are Leo von Caprivi (1890-94, 1831-99) and Chlodwig Prince zu Hohenlohe-Schillingfürst (1894-1900, 75 years).

Wilhelm II has pretence for a “place at the sun” for Germany in the colonial race. The motto “Worls policy as task, world power as goal, fleet as instrument” is hailed by the nation, represented by the All-German Union 1891 (Hugenberg) and influenced by leader of the political department of the foreign office Frederick von Holstein (1837-1909). Oversetimating the own power, a zickzack course begins.

In the economy Germany ascends to the strongest European industrial nation; foreign trade and trade fleet (Hamburg-America line: Albert Ballin, 1857-1918) make concurrence to the UK. Heavy, electro and chemic industry are concentrated in concerns: Stinnes, Krupp, Stumm, Siemens, AEG, IG-Farben. The conviction grows that industry, trade, nutrition and provision of population demand imperia power policy. Scepticism is shown by Leo von Caprivi and Adolf Marshall von Bieberstein, who was a leader of the foreign office 1890-97. 1890 Sansibar treaty is concluded: change of Sansibar against Helgoland with refuse from Uganda is criticized. In the same year the back security treaty with Russia is abolished despite the Russian wishes, which causes the French-Russian understanding. Under the next chancellor 1895 German-Russian action against Japan and the Kruger dépêche make the UK mute. Despite it, Bernhard von Bülow (1849-1929; from 1897 secretary of state) as leader of the foreign policy believes to have “free hand”. Admiral Alfred von Tirpitz (1849-1930) causes the enthusiasm of emperor and public opinion for his fleet policy. 1898 he proves the fleet building program with the risk for the future invaders. For the popularization of the “German sea interests” the fleet union is founded in the same year. Risk theory and “luxury fleet” (Churchill) burden the German-British relations more and more. The Emperor’s oriental visits and his Damascus speech (1898) awake British and Russian miscredit. The German Bank buys railway concessions in the Turkey. The talks with the UK about union (1898-1901) are unlucky because of British languishness (Salisbury) and the wrong estimation of the political situation (Holstein). Bülow demands the British support of the union of three in the belief at the free of election between “Russian bear and British walfish”.

Wilhelm II (1859-1941) is convinced in a mystic God’s mercy. He loves luxury and has a “bad eye”. After the Bismarck’s retire he decides the “new course” half-autoritarily, influenced by a trust persons like Philipp zu Eulenburg (1847-1921). Imperial burocracy (Holstein), true to the state politicians and historians (O. Hintze, H. Delbrück, Fr. Meinecke etc.) criticize the personal government of emperor, but do not touch the ‘strong monarchy” as “Bismarck’s healthy heritage”. The continuating economical ascent is confronted with the heavy problems in the inside policy: 1. Financial dependence of empire from the separate states; 2. The imperial policy is blocked with the constitution differences for all to Prussia. The three classes’ election law in Prussia secures a reactionary-conservative course, the empire (general election law) has to respect the non-Conservative forces (Center, Liberals, Socialists). 3. No parliamentary constitution reform: the parties, excluded from from the political responsibility, tend to the splittering (Liberals), to the revisionist thinking (SPD, Eduard Bernstein 1850-1932) or to the opportunism (Conservative). 4. Militarily tendencies came into the private life. 5. Prevention of a democratization: the union of agrarian, industrial and middle class organizations the revisionism inside the SPD as well as the founded (1896) by Frederick Naumann (1860-1919) the National-Social Union and other attempts (Max Weber) for the\workers’ integraqtion into the state. 6. The eastern policy: Polish protests and strikes are suppressed (1906), the settlment and deprivation laws are made to the favor of Germans.

1890-94 imperial chancellor Leo von Caprivi, Prussian prime-minister till 1892, searches a correct way “over the parties”, but has difficulties. 1890 the Socialists’ laws are abolished. 1890 the Social-democratic Party of Germany (SPD) is founded. Its Marxist Erfurt Program is made by Karl Kautsky (1854-1938) and defended against the left radicals like Ledebour (1850-1947) and Rosa Luxemburg (1870-1919) as well as revisionists. 1890/91 the laws about workers’ protection are accepted. Disappointed with the negative reaction of SPD (Bebel), the emperor turns from the “fatherlandless comrade”. From 1890 the trade unions are built anew: free socialist trade unions are organized in industrial unions. 1891-94 the policy of customs sinking through trade treaties (especially with Russia) against the resistance of the “agrarians”. 1892 Congress in Halberstadt: election of the general commission under Carl Legien. The Union of Landowners (1893) makes the Conservatives to the party of interests of East Elba big landowners (Oldenburg-Januschau). Free thinkers, Center and SPD are against the project about army. Despite it, after the dissolving of parliament, the army is strengthened for 83,000 men. Bismarck criticizes; his would-be reconciliation with the Emperor 1894 makes chancellor angry; he is overthrown because of the represson policy against the SPD (Anarchists’ law), wished by the emperor.

The next chancellor Chlodwig Prince zu Hohenlohe-Schillingfürst (1894-1900, 75 years), Bavarian prime-minister 1866-1870, from 1885 stateholder of Elsass-Lotaringia. Parliaments refuses to accept the laws about overthrow (1894) and “punishment house”, the struggle around the fleet laws takes place. 1895 the North-Baltic Sea channel is opened. 1896/7 strike of the Hanburg haven workers. State secretary of the domestic affairs Posadowsky begins a new phase of the social policy with his insurance reform (1899). 1899 the “punishment house” project is not accepted. 1900 the Civil Code (BGB) is introduced. Christian trade unions are built from the church workers’ unions. 1900 they are brought together to the general union (from 1902 General Secretary Adam Stegerwald, 1874-1945).

4 period - 1900-1909.

Imperial chancellor Bernhard von Bülow (1849-1929). Protected by Eulenburg and Holstein, chancellor getsv the sympathy of the emperor and the Conservatives through the revision of trade politics with introduction new customs tariffs 1902. The “bread usurer” brings new voices to the SPD. 1905 Cologne congress takes place: party political neutrality is stressed. 1905, after the French example the “yellow trade unions” are built (partly with support of firmas). After the refusal from the colonial policy through Center and SPD from 1906 Conservative-Liberal “Block policy”, but tensions, because the Liberals demand a change of the Prussian election right. The “Daily Telegraph” affair (1908) – unqualified interview of the emperor about the German-British relations – causes protets in all parties. Chancellor lets the emperor to be criticized. His political self-conscience is also damaged with scandal information of the journalist Maximilian Harden about the emperor’s circle of friends. Bülow does not use possibilities to change the constitution, 1909 he is overthrown because of the defeat in the imperial finance reform.

In the whole, after the unification Germany develops rapidly and becomes a first European industrial power. The political system remains obsolete: the conservative executive power confronts with the progressive lawgivers. Germany makes armes race and will get “a place under the sun”.

5.Austria-Hungary in 1870-1910.

Emperor Franz Joseph I rules both as emperor of Austria (1848-1916) and a king of Hungary (1867-1916). He has many problems in his family: crown prince Rudolph commits suicide 1889; the emperess Elisabeth is murdered 1898.

In Austria (Cisleithania) till 1878 the liberal era continues. 1871 from the fear for strengthening of Slavs the German Liberals do not accept the “Fundamental articles” of the Bohemian parliament for the building of an autonomus constitution as well as the Balkan policy of the monarchy in Bosnia. 1879-93 “Emperor’s minister” Eduard Taaffe (1833-95) rules with the “iron ring” of a Catholic-Conservative-Slavonic coalition. The constitution is damaged because of the police methods. In cooperation with the government the Poles get a kind of autonomy for Galicia (Polish as official language). Contradiction between the Polish people (land owners, city dwellers) and the pan-Slavist small peasants of Rusin origin remains. In south the Irredenta movement has the unification with Italy or autonomy of South Tirol and Triest as its goal. Czechs also have successes in the national fight (growth of the Czech population in the cities). 1880 both languages are allowed officially; 1882 the Czech University of Prague is founded; from 1883 the Czech majority in the land parliament exists. 1882 the election reform (five gulden election right). It makes the small bourgeoisie active: the Young Czech (Gregr), the German People’s (Schönefer) and the anti-Semitic Christian-Social Movement (Vogelsang) are developed. 1882 in the ‘Linz program” the German National Union demands the rebuilding of Galicia, the Bukovina and Dalmatia to the autonomous regions to preserve the German majority in Austria. The socialist movement is damaged with the extraordinary law (1884). After the uniting of its groups the Social-democratic party with the strong national accents is founded 1889 by the “court adviser of revolution” Victor Adler (1852-1918). It has a Marxist program (Kautsky), gets already 14 places in the empire’s parliament 1897, but is divided into the national special groups. 1890 German-Czech equalization is made, sabotaged by the pan-Slavist Young Czechs (Kramař, Masaryk). Among the socialist groups of Galicia the Polish Socialist party (PPS) under Joseph Pilsudsky (1867-1935) takes over leadership 1892 because of its national Polish fight. Till 1897 the ‘Social-democratic party of the Polish kIngdom” is led by Rosa Luxemburg . From the language order of prime minister Count Badeni for Bohemia and Moravia (1897) the lasting crisis begins. The obstruction of German extremists prevents the work of the imperial council. The All-German Union of Georg von Schönerer (1842-1921) develops the “Away from Rome” –movement (1897) to the closer binding to Germany, but the Christian Socialist party of the Vienna city governor Karl Lueger (1842-1910) supports the dynasty. 1899 national Pentecoste program of all German parties is accepted. The language order is abolished; now the Czech obstruction takes place. In Brünn Program (1899) of the SPA the national groups are brought together: a democratic federative state of autonomous people is demanded. With Max Adler (1873-1937) Otto Bauer (1882-1932) develops Austromarxism (recognizing of the national self-determination). 1900 only 10.6% percents of Austrians are urban.

The cabinets of Koerber and Beck (1900-08) try in vain to bring the “concentration of the work forces” into the industry. Equalisation with Moravia is successful 1905, but the general election law seals the Slavonic majority in the empire’s council, which cannot works (233 German against 265 Slavonic voices with 28 fractions). After 1907 (general election law) SPA becomes the second strongest party. Because of the small industrialization and national contradictions only small German national trade unions, Socialist and Christian trade unions are built. From 1908 a Polish army (as unions of shooters) is built. 1908 Bosnia and Herzegowina are annexed. From 1909 the autoritarian government rules with a right to order. 1910 Austria has 27,9 mln. of population, among them only 33% of Germans and 5% of Hungarians.

In Hungary (Transleithania) under prime minister Kálmán Tisza (1875-90, 1830-1902) the consequent Magyarisation takes against the opposition of the independence party (1874). 1876 the self-government of Transilvania is abolished. Supported by the secret Rumanian National committee (1869), the Rumanians drive back Hungarian and German land ownership in Transilvania. 1900 only 6.4% of Hungarians are urban. Against the obstruction in parliament, South Slavonic movement and Hungarian extremists Prime Minister István Tisza (1903-05) makes a “hard hand policy”: forceful exclusion of opposition and refusal from the general election law. Magyarisation and anti-Serbian trade politics change the Serbo-Croatian contradiction into the ‘Yugoslavian solidarity” from 1904. To defend from Hungarian and Great Serbian pretensions plans to add a Slavonic part of empire to the Austria-Hungarian dualism (trialism, represented by Archduke Franz Ferdinand). 1910 Hungary has 18 mln. of population, among them 54% of Hungarians and 11% of Germans.

In the whole, the multinational Austria-Hungary has many problems. The economically backward empire confronts with a danger of splitting into many national states. Some people already have local autonomies, but they want more. Internationally it is an ally of Germany.

1. Italy in 1870-1910.

Till 1878 Victor Emmanuel II rules. After the unification of Italy a period of exhaustion follows. Traditions and persons of the bourgeois parties (Radicals, left and right Liberals) are more important than programs, which are changed with a system of the “transformismo” (transformation of opposition through co-participation, bribes, terror). From 1876 left Liberal governments (Depreti’s cabinet) rule. Agriculture, industry, army and fleet are favored, therefore permanent budget deficit and striving for flight into the inrredenta politics from the domestique needs. 1878 the union “Italia Irredenta” is founded.

After 1870 the Popes live in Vatican as prisoners. 1878 Leo XIII becomes a Pope.

The son of Victor Emmanuel II Umberto I rules 1878-1900. 1879 the people’s school obligatory education for children from 6 till 9 years is introduced. 1882 the extension of election right (for about 20% of the man population, bound to the school documents) follows. In the same year Italy treats to the union of three because of the French occupation of Tunis, but the iredenta pretensions to Austria (South Tirol, Istria, Adria) disturb it. From 1887 Sicilian Francesco Crispi is a prime minister. The French actions in North Africa seduce Italy to colonial expansion with the help of the union of three and suppression of Irredenta wishes. Against Abessinian resistence 1887-90 Massau (1885) is extended to the colony Eritrea. 1889 , according to the treaty of Uccialli, Abessinia becomes protectorate, Menelik II is accepted as Negus. In the same year Italian Somali land is annexed. Overestimating own forces, Italy proclaims war against Abessinia 1894, after the protectorate treaty is abolished by Menelik II. But after the defeat at Adua (1896) the heavy political crisis takes place, Crispi is overthrown. The plan of an Abessian colonial empire is rejected in the treaty of Addis Abeba. A balance between the European unions through the weakening if Italian-French controversy is aimed. 1900 the secret treaty to the clearing of the mutual interests in North Africa is concluded (France: Morocco; Italy: Libya). Inside the country the growth of population with the permanent emigration takes place (1914 every fourth Italian lives abroad). 1887 protection customs policy favors the industrialization in the North (with help of foreign capital). In South economic and finance crises, bank and corruption scandals take place. 1888-98 trade war with France is led. Spare actions and growth of taxes of the Crispi’s “strong governments” cannot match very high administration and defence costs; sharpended expensiveness and need of the (land) workers; children work; small loans and long working times than in other industrial lands are the case. 1882/3 the Socialist party is founded (Bissolati, Turati etc.). Forms of comerade self-help and local trade unions appear. Trade unions and syndicates are united in the Milan working chamber 1889. Their example is followed, but the trade union movement remains splitten. 1891 social encyclical ‘Rerum novarum” of Leo XIII: the Catholic unions are united in the ‘Confederazione Italiana dei Lavoratori”; beside it, the Anarcho-Syndicalist groups appear. After the beginnings (“Fasci operai” in Bologna etc.) and splitting in the Marxist workers’ party the partito Socialista Italiano (PSI) is built 1892. 1894 the Socialist unions are dissolved. Anarchist attempts take place. Secret unions (Mafia, Camorra) destroy the authority of state in the South. In Sicily 1893/4 hunger revolts of the ‘Fasci” workers’ unions take place. 1900 Umberto I is murdered by an Anarchist.

The son of Umberto I Victor Emanuel III rules from 1900 till 1946. In Rome Pius X is Pope from 1903 till 1914. 1905-05/06-09 prime minister Giolitti (the “strong man” of the Liberals) plays parties and interest groups against each other and gets the Catholic ‘populari” parties and moderate Socialists for reforms. In the Socialist party against the Marxist under Labriola (1843-1904) Integrals and Reformists (Bissola) win, united after the party congress of 1906 in Rome. They get over 20 percents of electors. 1905/06 the railways are nationalized: workerss’ protection and social security, recognizing of the trade unions; 1906 founding of the “General union of the work” (Confederazione Generale del Lavoro) a loose organization of industrial and professional trade unions is reached . Economic and science recover and find connection to Europe. Despite it, the ‘Giolitism” loses power to the favor of the new integral nationalism”. 1907 Benito Mussolini (1883-1945) becomes a workers’ secretary of the Socialist party. He is born as son of a smith, became teacher of people’s school and worked as radical Socialist in the Switzerland, in France and the Austrian Trentino (1902-1910) journalistically and propagandistically. The poet and fan of Nietzsche Gabriele d’Annunzio (1863-1938) thinks that “freedom in a people, who will take power at the world conquest’ is too much. 1910 he inspires the party of Nationalists, which will the “fight of nations” instead of class struggle and demands an Irredenta policy. In the foreign policy equalisation with France in the neutrality treaty of 1902 and weakening of the union of three in the crises around Morocco and Bosnia. Nationalist pressure and French success in Morocco cause the return to the Irredenta tradition (strengthening of the Alps frontier) and the colonial policy.

In the whole, the united Italy remains a backward land with contrast between the industrial North and agricultural South, but with pretensions to the imperial conquests in Africa. It remains a member of the union of three, but comes closer to France.

1. Other countries in 1870-1910.

In Danemark 1863-1906 Christian IX rules. Conservative reaction under the Estrup’s government with a Liberal and peasant majority in Folkething lower house), led by Bajer (1837-1922). 1879 Bismarck does not give the promised self-estimation to the North Sleswig, but the Danish keep together through national unions. Peasant societies make better the export of agrarian products. 1901 the system change: the government Christensen’s (1905-1909) makes real a peasant reform program through the autonomous constitution for Island 1903. 1900 Danemark has 2,5 mln. inhabitants (177 % more than 1800).

In Sweden till 1872 Karl XV rules. 1972 till 1807 Oskar II makes German friendly neutrality policy. The wood anmd iron richdom is industrially discovered with water powers works, but agrarian crises cause ther mass emigration to the USA and the reform of agriculture to the keep-breeding. 1888 protective tolls for grain, 1892 for industrial products are accepted. 1901 General arms obligation is accepted. Aftwer the dissolving of Union with Norway the party system is built. Under Gustav V (1907-50) the parlamentarism is established. Against the Conservative “Progress party” (1906) Socialists and the Liberal “Collection party” reach the general election right 1909. 1900 the population of Sweden is 5,1 mln. people, 122 percents more than 1800.

In Norway the Svendrup’s ministry (1884-1889) of the peasant left introduces the parliamentary system practically; general election right exists from 1898. The storting demands the independent foreign policy for the representation of Norway ship voyage interests. Oskar II does not accept a law for arrangement of an own consulate.

In the Switzerland the world post union is founded in Bern 1874. 1874 constitution revision to the favor of the union is made: referendum for laws is made, unitary military and state schools, therefore culture fight is made till 1884. The high developed industry is independent from the world market and therefore is fallible to the crisis. Social-democrats (1887) and peasants’ union (1897) grow for costs of Liberal Radicals and the Conservative Catholic People’s party (1894). 1900 the population of Switzerland numbers 3,3 mln. (94% more than 1800).

In Netherlands Wilhelm III rules (1849-1890). 1890 Luxemburg becomes independent. Wilhelmina (1890-1948) keeps loyal at the reformed constitution of 1887. Under changing Liberal and Conservative Catholic ministeries the social law giving is continuated. The “ethic colonial period” follows to the fights of the Atjeh (Sumatra), which gives a politic influence to the aborigines. 1900 Netherlands has 5,2 mln. inhabitants (148 percents more than 148).

In Belgium 1865 till 1909 Leopold II rules. School political struggles lead to the break of relations to Rome 1880. The king acquires the Kongo state as private possession and inherits the state. 1885 Brussels congress is summoned: founding of the Marxist working party. It gets voices as the “third power” because of the general election right (1894). From 1898 equality of Flamish and French language. British claims about the colonial exploitation accelerate taking of Kongo through the state 1908. 1900 Belgium has 6,7 mln. percents, which is 123 percents more than 1800.

In the whole, the small countries are ruled by the constitutional monarchy government and make progress in whole aspects.

The main development of European countries can be characterized as movement to the imperialist foreign policy and liberal changes inside the country. The ideas of progress (technical and spiritual) came into the conscience of masses. But instead of progress Europe came to the eve of the 1st World War.

Questions:

1. Describe the development of European culture in the period of imperialism.
2. What were the main events of Spain and Portuguese history in this time?
3. Describe the English history of this time.
4. How can one periodize the German history of this time?
5. What were the main features of French history of the time?
6. Describe the development of Italy in this period.
7. What were the differences in the development of the small European countries?

 35. Eastern Europe in 1870-1910.

A) Russia.

1. (7) period – 1881-1917 (ca. 1880-1910) .

It is a last period of existence of Russian empire, the time of rule of Alexander III (1881-1894) and Nicolas II (1894-1917). For the simplification of discussion it can be divided into three sub-periods: а) 1881-1894; b) 1894-1905; c) 1905-1917.

а) 1881-1894 – period of rule of Alexander III. As reaction for murder of Alexander III the repressions against revolutionaries strengthen, 1881-82 Jewish pogroms take place. 1881 “ohranka” (secret policy) is organized. In Baltic region and Finland the politics of Russification takes place. Czar is under the influence of his teacher, the over procurer of Sinod Pobedonoscev. The positions of orthodoxy strengthen; the church parish schools and classical gymnasiums with two foreign languages are opened. In the revolutionary movement there is a search of new ways and splitting. Besides individual terror (attempt to murder Alexander III in 1887) and “narodniki” the Marxists appears, mostly among the emigrants – 1883 in Geneva the group “Liberation of work” appears, Plekhanov polemizes with “narodniki”.Marxists try to use the workers’ movement, which becomes more and more active in that time (the Morozov strike of 1885 was the most important) and prove (in difference to “narodniki”) that capitalism develops in Russia. In Russia really the industrialization takes place, which causes the appearance of proletariat (19%), peasants (69% of population) are also divided after the reform into the rich (19%), middle and poor (both 25%). Upper class numbers 3%, middle class – 8% of population. The population of Russia is about 125 million in 1893. The railways are built (1883-86 – Transcaspian, 1891-1904 – Transsiberian). Despite the hunger 1891, the grain is exported. In this time the west enters into the epoch of imperialism, which is characterized with fight for colonies and export markets and striving for re-division of world. Russia also acquires the new territories (Turkmenia till 1884, Pamir region till 1895), but is cannot be called an imperialistic state. The old feudal policy of the territorial expansion continues (cp. the wars of Louis XIV in the 17th century), meanwhile England, France, Germany acquire overseas colonies in Asia and Africa. But the extension of Russian territory certainly causes the conflict with England (because of Central Asia) and Japan (in the Far East).

In the foreign policy Russia initially keeps relations with Germany and Austria-Hungary, but from 1890 begins to support France, with which the union of 1894 was concluded. It brought short-time advances (investitions into industry), but at the end gave to Entente the possibility to involve Russia into the war with theTriple union. Nikolai Giers (1882-1895) is a foreign minister.

 The development of Russian lilterature develops. Mikhail Katkov (1818-87) propagates autocratic Russian idea in the “Moskovskie vedomosti”, which forms the public opinion. Pessimism of intelligentsia of that epoch was expressed by Garshin, Chekhov was famous writer and dramatist. The interest to religion grows, which is typical for the last period of macroperiod (“spiritual”). Vladimir Solovyov was a famous religious philosopher. Beside the orthodoxy, the sects develops, which come from the West (Baptists, Mennonites) and unite partly with Old Believers. New religious teaching was created by Leo Tolstoy, H.P.Blavatsky, emigrated to the West, founds the “Theosophical society” 1875, then publishes “Isis reviled” and “Secret doctrine” (in English). In Galicia the literary activity of Ivan Franko begins, famous Ukrainian writer was Panas Mirny, and composer – Lysenko. Plays in the colloquial Ukrainian are written by Karpenko-Kary, Kropivnicky and Staricky.

In the whole the period of stabilization.

1894-1905 – rule of Nicolas II till the revolution of 1905.

Nicolas II, corresponding typologically to Charles I in England of 17th century and Louis XVI in France of 18th century, ascended upon the throne 1894, but his coronation took place only 1896 and caused a death of about 1,000 people (Hodynka), which was understood as a bad sign (therefore the nickname “Nikolay the Bloody”). In the 90-s there is an ascent in economy, which was promoted by the activity of finance minister Count Witte (1849-1915, 1892-1903). The golden standard was introduced 1897, secured by credits from Rothschild. 1904 Transsib was finished. But 1901-1903 the economic crisis comes, following with the depression 1904-08 and crisis 1908.

 The foreign policy of Russia is characterized with adventurism, the Far Eastern dfirection became now the main. Russia, like the western states of that time, tries to use the weakness of China, 1898 leases Port-Arthur, 1900 occupies Manzhuria. Then Russia tries to strengthen its positions in the North Korea. It causes the indignation of Japan and war of 1904-05; Russia was defeated, despite the heroic deeds of soldiers and seamen. The main cause of defeat was underestimation by Nicolas the forces of Japan, which developed quickly and was modernized in this epoch. The appointing of two commanders – Kuropatkin (war minister, 1898-1904) and Alexeev was tactically wrong. As result (Portsmuth treaty 1905) the south of Shakhalin and Port-Arthur was given to Japan, it received protectorate over Korea and South Manzhuria.

 The revolutionary struggle strengthens. 1895 Lenin creates “Union of struggle for the liberation of working class”, existed for a short time. Social-democratic parties with national ideas are created in Poland, Baltic countries, Transcaucasia, among Jews (Bund). 1898 in Minsk the Ist congress of RSDWP takes part, all participitants of which were arrested soon. 1903 at the 2nd congress of RSDWP (Brussels-London) the splitting of social-democrats into Mensheviks (Martov, Plekhanov, Trotsky) and Bolsheviks (Lenin). From 1901 the Marxist newspaper “Iskra” is published in the emigration. Social-revolutionaries (from 1901) support the revolutionary terror, as before (Chernov, Savinkov). More moderate positions were represented by “legal Marxists” and constutional democrats (“Union of liberation” 1903). Because of the active participation of Jews in the revolutionary activity and Zionism, which appeared in that epoch, the anti-Jewish moods strengthen (like in the contemporary Western countries, first of all in Germany), the “Protokols of wises of Zion” are fabricated by “okhranka”, 1903 Jewish pogroms in Kishinev take place. In such a way, till 1905 the country is not monolite, the political organizations and parties of all directions are formed. 1897 the working day was limited with 11.5 hours a day, but the workers’ movement strengthens in the time of crisis (Obukhov defence 1901, demonstrations in Sormovo and strike in Rostov upon Don 1902, general strike in the south of Russia 1903). Under the influence of defeat of Russia in the Japanese war the threat of revolution is real.

 In the Russian literature the “silver age” begins, it is an epoch of early symbolism, which is represented by Bryusov and Sollogub. Leo Tolstoy writes his last novel (“Resurrection”) 1899, where the author’s ideas are felt. First works are written by Maxim Gorky, his style is a revolutionary Romantism. Kuprin and Bunin are famous prosa writers. The achievements of Russian science are great, 1895 Popov invents radio. In the church life the preparation to the council begins, Ioann of Kronstadt (Sergiev) is a famous saint (1829-1908). Among a part of intelligentsia mysticism strengthens, from the west Spiritism comes (belaughed by Tolstoy) together with Theosophy, which influenced the symbolists, sects propagate.

 Lenin writes that in this time Russia entered into the epoch of imperialism. Really in Russia the development of capitalism began only a short time ago. Its development in the agriculture was also not big, the community was still preserved 1905 Russia was alike France of 1789, which influenced the course of the first Russian revolution.

с) 1905-1911.

Revolution of 1905-07 began from the “bloody Sunday” January 9, 1905. The actions in 1905 were the most active (revolt upon the cruiser “Potemkin”, the October political strike, Decamber revolt in Moscow). October 17 Czar publishes the manifest, where the civil rights and the summoning of the State Duma (parliament) are granted. Revolution in Russia takes place almost 120 years later, than in France, and coincides in time with the revolutions in Turkey, Iran and China. This shows that Russian Empire, which began its history as a European state, became an Asiatic country in the begin of the 20th century. 1905 corresponds to 1789 inFrance; “oktyabristy” (Union of the 17th Octover) and “kadety” – constitutional democrats, who came to power in the I State Duma 1906 after the dismissal of Witte as prime-minister – to the French Girondists. The “black hundred” (Union of Russian people), corresponding to the French Feuillants, were also strong in duma. The representatives of pesants – “trudoviki” and a few social-democrats, who made their III congress in London,were also represented there, corresponding to the Jacobines. Soon Duma was dismissed, but the II Duma, summoned 1907, was even more revolutionary. June 3, 1907 was also dismissed and a new election law was published. Revolution of 1905-07 ended, but the revolutionary process continued.

With revolution Russia entered into the period of constitutional monarchy, which lasted for 12 years (in France of XVIIIth century - three years – 1789-92). Prime minister Stolypin (1906-1911) made some important reforms, first of all agrarian, destroyed the community, the exploration of waste lands was planed. The resolute suppression of revolutionary extremism was made. In III Duma “black hundred”, Oktyabristy and Kadety were in the majority. Economically the industrial ascent (1909-13) takes place. Russia was at the first place in the world according to the tempos of production growth. Reforms of Stolypin were progressive, but 1911 he was killed by terrorists (repeating the fate of another reformer – Alexander II).

Defensive treaty of Björkö between Wilhelm II and Nicolas II (1905) remains without action. Foreign minister Izvolsky (1906-1910) ends the Russian-British rivality through the treaty about Persia (1907), makes Balkans and Sea straits policy, supports the Serbian panslavism, meets with a strengthened Austrian-Hungary Balkan activity (foreign minister Aehrental) and is defeated in the Bosnian crisis (1908).

In the realm of culture it is a fruitful epoch, the “silver age”, which had a feeling of catastrophe. After 1905 all religious organizations have got freedom, among them Old Believers, who had the first congress 1910. “Edinovercy” also had congress 1909. In the same year the First congress of monks was summoned. Sects propagate, among them “tolstovstvo”, Tolstoy himself was excommunicated 1908 and died 1910. Among intelligentsia theosophy and anthroposophy are propagated, they influenced the works of A.Bely and N.Gumilev. After the break of 80 years the free masons are revived, who became now more a political organization (like masons of the 18th century in France). Russian philosophers prefer mystic positions (Bulgakov, Berdyaev, Florensky etc., collection “Change of marks” (Smena veh). Lenin writes philosophical works too (“Materialism and empiriocriticism”), fighting with other understandings of Marxism (“God-building” and “God-searching”, Bazarov, Bogdanov, Lunacharsky).

In the whole, Russia continues reforms and goes through the first revolution. But it continues to be a backward state, moving into Asia.

B.Balkan Orthodox countries in 1870-1910.

In the time of German-French War Russia abolishes the Paris peace of 1856. 1871 at the Pontus conference in London with Bismark’s support it gets the right of the free passage through the sea straits. 1875/6 revolts of the Turk vassals are sharpened till the Serbian-Turk War. The Porta does not want inside reforms. For the liberation of the Balkan Christians Russia begins the Russian-Turk War (1877-78). After the occupation of the Shipka passage and taking of Plevna Russian movement to Constantinople and in the Caucasus region. 1878, March the San Stefano treaty is concluded: The Balkan states (among them Bulgaria) are made bigger on the cost of the European Turkey. Austria and the UK protests against the increasing Russian influence. In Berlin congress (1878 June-July) Bismarks acts as the “honest Makler”: Rumania, Serbia, Montenegro become independent. Bulgaria as independent princedom must pay tribute, but loses Macedonia to the Turkey and Eastern Rumelia, which gets the inside autonomy. Russia receivs Bessarabia and parts of Armenia (Kars); England – Cyprus; Austria – the right to administrate Bosnia and the Nerzegovina. It is a big political success of Panslavism and support of the Orthodox people by Moscow – “the third Rome”. But Russia is unsatisfied with the result of Berlin congress. Therefore the relations to Germany get worse, the Russian-Austrian Balkan opposition is sharpened; therefore Germany and Austria come closer. The national problems in Balkans remain unresolved.

In Greece 1863-1913 Georg I (House Glücksburg) rules. After the uniting with Thessaly (1881) Macedonia becomes the Greek-Bulgarian object of struggle. A second revolt in Crete end with Greek-Turk War (1897) with Greek defeats in Thessaly. Despite it, through the intruding of great powers Crete gets politic autonomy under Turk supremacy. The leader of Enosis Venicelos (1863-1936) proclaims the uniting 1905. 1908 Crete is united with Greece.

In Macedonia the “Inside Macedonian revolutionary organization” (IMRO) atrive for an autonomous Macedonia inside a kind of Balkan federation. 1903, after the Iliuds’ revolts of the IMRO at August 2 (Elias’ day), Austria-Hungary and Russia intervene (treaty of Mürzsteg in the Stiria). Bulgaria, where many Macedonian emigrants reside and which exarchate extended its jurisdiction for Macedonia, strives for a military decision of the Macedonian question through annexion.

In Montenegro from 1860 prince Nikola I rules. 1876 for the support of revolt in Herzegovina (from 1875) he together with Milan Obrenović of Serbia declares war to the Porta. 1878 Montenegro gets independence. 1910 Nikita I becomes king of Montenegro.

In Serbia Milan Obrenović (14 years old) rules autocratically 1868 till 1889. Against the opposition of the Radical party, led by Nikola Pašić (1846-1926), connection with Austria is made. 1882 a Serbian kingdom is proclaimed. 1885 Serbs attack Bulgaria to conquer Vidin, but have a heavy defeat (the Bukarest peace 1886). 1889 the country has got a new free constitution; but but Milan abdicated to thefavor of his son Alexander. Initially the government was made by supervisors; but 1893 Alexander took the power himself, later the constitution of 1869 was restored. His marriage with court woman Draga Masjin brought dissatisfaction in the country. 1903 Alexander Obrenović, the last king of thee dynasty is murdered in his palace in Balgrad together with the queen, prime minister Marković because of conspiration of nationalist officers. After it the South Slavic movement (Yugoslavism) grows. Serbia gets territories in the south. 1903-18 (or 21) Peter I Karadjordjević rules. Under him the Radical party with Pašić as prime minister has power. 1906 his anti-Austrian policy is answered by Vienne with a prohibition of sheep import (83% of the Serbian export).The “pig war” is overcome with French capital help. The own industry to elaboration of the agriculture production is built.1908, October the Austrian annexion of Bosnia-Hercegovina causes big indignation and mobilization in Serbia.

Radoje Domanović is a famous Serbian satirist of the time. His anti-utopy “Stradia” builds a picture of the totalitarian society with a pseudo-opposition.

In Bulgaria in close connection to Russia craftsmen, hajduks (free shooters) and clergy fight the Turk domination and the protectorate over the Orthodox Church. 1870 the Bulgarian exarchate, created by the order of Sultan, is not recognized by Constantinople (till 1945). Social-revolutionaries like Rokovsky and Khristo Botev (1848-76) lead the politic fight. The Central Bulgarian revolutionary committee in Bukarest (1872) plans general people’s revolt (1875-1876), suppressed bloodily by Turks. This causes the Russian intruding. Despite Russian wishes, the Bulgarian national assembly in Trnovo accepts a liberal constitution after Belgian example, but elects a nephew of Czar Alexander von Battenberg (House Hessen-Darmstadt) to prince. With Russian advisers he rules over the undeveloped agrarian land. British and Austrian imports ruine the crafts, the debt grows. Only through the taking over of Eastern Rumelia (1885) against Russian and Serbian protests the prince wins the favor of nation. In the same year without military help victory at Slivnica in the war against Serbia takes place. Because of the conspiration, organized with Russian help, he is overthrown in the next year and abdicates.

Ferdinad I (House Saxony-Coburg) rules from 1887 till 1918. The “Bulgarian Bismarck”, prime minister Stambulov (1854-95), europizes administration, economics and army against Rusophiles. After his dismidssal Ferdinand reconciliates with Russia. 1908, October Ferdinand I proclaims himself to the Czar of kingdom Bulgaria.

In Rumania Carol I (House Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen) rules from 1866 till 1914. Rumania becomes a souverain state 1880 and a kingdom 1881. From 1881 army is built after Prussian example; railways are built, schools are improved, oil sources are explored. 1883 Rumania enters the union of two. The party struggles damage the country, but it has success in many fields.

In the whole, the orthodox countries of Balkans are liberated after the Russian-Turk War 1877-78 and develop their own economy under the Western influence and mostly with German kings.

Questions:

1. Describe the 21st period of Russian history.

2. Describe the problems of the Balkan Orthodox countries in this time.

36. Jews in 1870-1910.

A) Jews of Western Europe.

1870: The Franco-Prussian War. The Cremieux Decree; the Jews of Algeria receive French citizenship (from 1865, following Napoleon’s III visit to Algeria, Jews and Muslims were entitled to citizenship on the individual basis).

1871, April 22: Granting of equal rights to the Jews of Bavaria completes the process of emacipation in the German Empire. The Anglo-Jewish Association is founded in London.

1872: Gerson Bleichroeder, Bismarck’s confidant and financial agent, becomes the first non-converted Jew in Prussia to receive a hereditary title of nobility.

1874: The granting of equal rights to the Jews in Switzerland completes the process of emacipation in Europe. Benjamin Disraeli becomes Prime Minister of the UK.

1878: A delegation representing the central committee of the Alliance participates in the Congress of Berlin; this is the first time that a Jewish delegation takes part in an international congress. Wilhelm Marr publishes “The Victory of Judaism over Germandom”, a violently racist pamphlet. It was Marr who introduced the term “antisemitism” into the political vocabulary. The following year he founded the league of Anti-Semites, modeled upon similar organizations in Austria and Hungary, and a short-lived monthly. In Germany Adolf Stoecker founds the Christian Social Workers’ Party.

1879-1880: A public disputation concerning the Jews and their role in the history of German culture takes place between the Jewish historian Heinrich Graetz and his anti-Semitic colleague Heinrich von Treitschke (“A word about our Judaism”). The great classical historian, Theodor Mommsen, reacts with “Another word about our Judaism” in which he accuses Treitschke of creating a public disturbance.

1881: Mommsen and other intellectual celebrities sign a petition protesting against anti-Semitism (The Declaration of the Notables, published in the ‘National Zeitung” in November 14, 1888). At the same timean anti-Semitic petition, bearing 225,000 signatures and calling for the “liberation” of the German people from Jewish domination, is presented to Bismarck. Eugen Duehring, economist, philosopher and anti-Semitic writer, publishes his “The Jewish Question as a racial, moral, and cultural question”.

1881-82: In Berlin, 11-12% of physicians and 8-9% of journalists are Jews. There are 1,074,00 Jews in Western Europe and 1,951,000 Jews in Austria-Hungary.

1882: Founding in Vienna of the Kadima (“Forward”) society, the first national society of Jewish students. Heinrich Keller publishes the first complete edition of the paintings of Moritz Oppenheim, ‘Family Scenes from Jewish lIfe of Former Days”, which was to become one of the most popular Jewish books in Germany. The first international anti-Semitic congress meets in Dresden.

1884: The first Yiddish socialist paper, Dos Poylisher Yidl (”The Polish Jew”), appears in London.

1885: “An image of the future” by Edmund Menachem Eisler, published in Vienna, is the first Zionist literary utopia.

1886: Publication of Edouard Drumont’s “La France juive’, to become the central text of French anti-Semitism.

1887: The first anti-Semitic deputy in the Reichstag, folklorist Otto Boeckel, publishes “The Jews, Kings of Our Time”, a pamphlet which sells a million and an a half copies; three years later, he founds an anti-Semitic popular party. Orientalist Paul Anton Boetticher, known as de Lagarde, publishes “Juden und Indogermanen”.

1889: Drumont, who founds his Antisemitic League, stressed the role played by Jewish financiers in this “Panama scandal”.

1891: Karl Lueger founds the anti-Semitic Social-Christian party.

1892: Drumont launches the anti-Semitic journal “La Libre Parole”.

1893, March 26: Founding of the Central Society of German Citizens of the Jewish Faith: Citizens of the Jewish Faith: a defense organization intended to protect German Jews from anti-Semitism, it evolved into a central body of German Jewry in future generations. Theodor Fritsch, “Antisemiten-Katechismus”.

1894: Bernard Lazare’s book “Antisemitism, Its History and Causes”. Alfred Dreyfus is arrested for alleged treason.

1896: Herzl’s “The Jewish State” is published in Vienna. Systematic collections of Judeo-Spanish romanceros.

1897: The first French version of Herzl’s “The Jewish State” is published in Paris. Lueger’s election as mayor of Vienna is confirmed by an Emperor (who had previously denied it on several occasions). Another anti-Semitic agitator, Georg von Schoenerer, returns to parliament after a stretch in prison. The foundation of Zionism proper at the first congress, convoked in Basel by Theodor Herzl.

1898: Emile Zola publishes his letter “J’accuse” in “L’Aurore” (January 13). Drumont is Algerian deputy to the national Assembly; anti-Jewish leagues and pogroms in Algeria. A National-Socialist Party is created in Bohemia. Under the influence of Owen and Bellarny, Herzl begins writing ‘Altneuland”: a portrayal of the imaginaty outcome of his Zionist efforts.

1899: The first Zionist meeting in Prague is dispersed by the police. Thomas G. Masaryk, the future founder of the Czechoslovak republic, denounces a blood libel in Bohemia. Houston Stewart Chamberlain, “The Foundations of the Nineteenth Century”; English by birth, French by culture and German by sentiment, this champion of the Aryan race, Wagners son-in-law is one of the spiritual father of Nazism.

1900: The distribution of Austrian Jews according to their occupations: 27.8% - in industry; 16.2% - professions and state administration; 11.4% agriculture; 43.7% - business and transport. In Austrian urban population there are 23.3% Jews, in Hungary – 26.1%.

1903-1905: The first and great crisis of Zionism provoked by the ‘Uganda Scheme” – the proposal made by the British government to establish an autonomous Jewish colony in East Africa (now Kenya). An opposition led by Menahem Ussishkin and Ahad Ha-Am, strongly objecting to such a departure from the established course, proved a stronger party than Herzl and his “political Zionists” and set the ethos of mainstream Zionism from that time on. At the 6th Zionist congress (1903) 50.5% voted for the “Uganda scheme”, 32.5% - against, 17.4% - abstentions.

1906, July: Rehabilitation of Dreyfus. The Austro-Hungarian government legally defines the status of the Jewish communities in Croatia, Slavonia and Dalmatia.

1907: Four representatives of the Jewish National Party are elected to the Austrian parliament. Otto Bauer’s ‘The Question of Nationalities and Social-Democracy”. Bauer, son of a Jewish industrialist, one of the leaders of Austrian socialism and the first foreign minister of the Austrian Republic (November 1918 and July 1919), advocated assimilation and argued that Jews could not be regarded as a nationality. Gustav Landauer, ‘The Call to Socialism”, a manifesto of socialists who reject any form of government authority.

1908: Among the first 200 millionaires in Prussia there are 55 Jews.

In the whole, in Western Europe the Jews have got the equal right. Their number and significance in economics grows. They are active participants in Zionist and Socialist organizations. As reaction, anti-Semitism grows, anti-Semitic parties are created.

B) Jews of Eastern Europe.

a) Russia.

1869-72: The Yiddish journal “Kol mevasser” (“Announcing voice”), founded in 1862 as a supplement to the Hebrew weekly “Ha-Melitz”, disseminates scientific information in western style. The maskilim disparage Yiddish, yet they have no choice but to address the Jewish masses in the only language language they know.

1871: A pogrom in Odessa; many assimilationist Jes begin to doubt the possibility of integration.

1877-78: The Russian-Turkish War: the press accuses the Jews in profiteering. 1878: A blood-libel affair in Kutais in the Caucasus.

1879: Denounced to the authorities, probably by Hasidim, J.L.Gordon is arrested for conspiring with revolutionary elements.

1881: In Poland and European Russia there are 5,111,000 Jews in Asian Russia - 105,000. April: Anti-Jewish riots begin in Yelizavetgrad and spread to other towns and townlets. May: Anti-Jewish riots in Odessa. Jewish students organize self-defence operations. August: Special commissions are set up in each region within the Pale of Settlement to investigate the harm caused to the ‘principal” population by Jewish economic activities. December: A pogrom in Warsaw. Members of the Polish nobility denounce the violence since they believe it aids the Russian course.

1881-1890: Appearance of the Yiddish weekly Yidisches Folksbat (“ Journal of the Jewish People”) in which Shalom Aleichem (Shalom Rabinovitz, 1859-1916) publishes his first stories (July-August 1883).

1882, January: Count Ignatyev, a minister of the interior, declares that Jews are allowed to leave Russia: a huge wave of emigration to the West. May: A pogrom in Balta. The ‘Temporary Laws” (May 3rd) are ratidied by the Czar, resulting to severe limitations on Jewish economic activity. Yielding to public pressure, the Czar dismisses Ignatyev.

1883: The proto-Zionist movement Hibbat Zion (“Love of Zion”) begins publishing numerous periodicals and writings in Hebrew, Yiddish and Russian. In 1884, during its first congress, the movement elects Leon Pinsker, author of Autoemancipation, as its leader.

1886: The first Hebrew daily newspaper appears in St.Petersburg: Ha-Yom (“The Day”), revolutionizing journalistic Hebrew – its style simple and precise rather than literary and stiled.

1887, July: A numerous clausus (quota) is introduced in secondary schools and universities.

1889: Jewish lawyers are forbidden to practice law without special permission from the ministry of justice. Asher Ginsberg, dubbed Ahad Ha-Am (“One of the People”), advocate of “spiritual” Zionism, published an article entitled “The Wrong Way” and founds in Odessa the Benei Moshe (“Sons of Moses”) movement.

1891: The expulsion from Moscow.

1892: “A Journey to the Land of Israel in the year 2040”, published by E.L.Lewinsky in Odessa, is the first Hebrew utopia.

1892-1901: Founding of Hebrew publishing houses in Poland and Russia.

1897: Founding of the Bund, an autonomist Jewish party, which is also the first socialist worker’s organization in Russia and the nucleus of the Social Democratic Party, in Vilna. The following year the Bund joins the Russian Social-Democratic Party, only to leave it a few years later when the party refuses to accommodate a national faction.

1903, April: The pogrom in Kishinev: many Jews are killed, hundreds are injured. First publication, in Russian newspapers, of the “Protocols of the Elders of Zion”; a document forged by the Czarist secret police (the Ochranka), based on the French pamphlet directed against Napoleon III (Dialogue in Heil between Machiavelli and Montesquieu by Maurice Joly, 1864).

1903-1906: Second wave of pogroms in Russia and the Ukraine: Gomel (1903), Zhitomir (1906), Odessa (1906).

1904: H.N.Bialik, In the City of Slaughter.

1905: L.D. Trotsky (Bronstein, 1881-1940) leades the St.-Petersburg Soviet; October: The Black Hundred, a government-supported anti-Semitic organization, instigates anti-Jewish riots. Censorship is abolished and the Jewish press flourishes.

1905-1907: Der Weg (“The Road”), the first Yiddish daily in Warsaw.

1906: A pogrom in Bialystok; the army and the police collaborate with the rioters.

1908: A Yiddish conference in Chernowitz.Yiddish was proclaimed a national language of the Jewish people. The writer and poet I.L.Peretz (1852-1915) was deputy chairmain at that time.

In the whole, the situation of Jews in Russia was bad enough. Pogroms took place. Despite it, Yiddish and Hebrew cultures were developed. After the revolution of 1905 the Jews got more rights.

b) Balkans.

1878: Jews seld-defense is organized in Sofia in order to protect the community during the Turk’s retreat.

1881: there are 372, 000 Jews in Balkans.

1884: La Alborada (“Dawn”), the first Ladino newspaper (the Jewish-Spanish language of Sephardi Jews) appears in Bulgaria.

1885: Jews are drafted for the first time to the Bulgarian army. Rumanian authorities expel two Jewish leaders who fought for emancipation.

1889: Emancipation of the Serbian Jews.

1891: A blood libel affair in Corfu.

1893: Jewish pupils are expelled from public schools in Rumania.

1910: First Jewish political organisation, the Union of Native Jews, later named the Union of Rumanian Jews, defends Jewish rights but opposes Zionism.

In the whole, after the liberation from the Ottoman yoke the situation of Jews in the Balkans became better. But anti-Semitism existed there too.

С) Jews of the Near East.

1869-70: The first modern road: from Jaffa to Jerusalem.

1870: Castelnuovo founds the Società anonima commerciale, industrial e Agricola per Tunisia, an immense investment company which includes certain Florentine bankers among its main shareholders.The Cremieux Decree grants French citizenship to the Jews of Algeria.

1876: Constitution of the Ottoman Empire. Founding of the mutual-aid organization of the Jews of Tunisia; restriction of their authority. The establishment of the Ottoman parliament; the Jews are represented in the parliament and in local councils, and admitted to high positions in the government.

1877: Anti-Jewish riots in southern Morocco.

1878: First Alliance school in Tunisia. Petah Tikvah, “the mother of moshavot (villages of independent farmers)”, is founded.

1880: The Madrid Conference imposes restrictions on the system of granting European protection to Moroccan Jews.

1881: Eliezer Ben Yehuda, “the father of modern Hebrew”, settles in Jerusalem.

1881-1903: The First Aliyah (wave of emigration). Small groups of pioneers from Russia and Rumania begin settling the land. Some Jews begin to emigrate from Yemen. 1881 there are 21,000 of urban population and 3,000 of rural population, two-third of whom live in Jerusalem.

1882: Founding of Rishon le-Zion; by the end of the year the Jews possess 5500 acres of land.

1882-1890: Baron Edmond de Rothschild invests about £1,600.000 in the modernization of agriculture and industry (wine in Rishon le-Zion and Zihkron Ya’akov, perfumes in Yesud ha-Ma’alah, silk in Rosh Pinnah).

1883: Founding of Yesud ha-Ma’alah and Ekron.

1884: Founding of Gederah.

1889: Ben-Yehuda begins composing his great Hebrew dictionary.

1890: Founding of Rehovot and Haderah. Establishment of the Hebrew Language Committee. 1890-1913: Ottoman restrictions on Jewish immigration to Palestina.

1892: The first railroad from Yaffa to Jerusalem. The national library is founded in Jerusalem.

1895: The opening of the Alliance school in Libya is resented by some of the more orthodox Jews in Libya.

1896: Ahad Ha-Am (“One of the People”, pen-name of the essayist Asher Ginzberg) founds the lirerary monthly Ha-Shilo’ah. Establishment of the first Hebrew publishing firms (Ahi’asaf and Tushiyyah) and the first Hebrew-speaking elementary school in Jaffa.

1897-1901: Anti-Jewish riots in Algeria.

1897: February: “Bar Kokhba”, the first Zionist association in Cairo. August 29-31: A North African delegation participates in the First Zionist congress in Basle. It marks the beginning of Zionist activities in North Africa and in the Near East.

1898: The first Hebrew-speaking kindergarten in Rishon le-Ziyyon.

1899: Baron Edmond de Rotschild transfers the administration of the settlemens to the Jewish colonization to Oxford (ICA).

1900: “Sha’arei Zion”, the first Zionist association in Morocco, is founded in Mogador.

 1901: The Alliance opens an agricultural school in Djebaida in Tunisia. Creation of the Keren Kayemet le-Israel, the Jewish National Fund. May: Herzl is received by Sultan Abd al-Hamid II in Istanbul. September: A ‘Zionist school” is opened in Cairo.

1903: Creation of the Anglo-Palestine Co.: the beginning of modern banking.

1904-1914: The Second Aliya, which brings the collective settlement (the kibbutz).

1905: Founding of the leftist Zionist party, Hapo’el ha-Tsair (the “Young Worker”). Imam Yahya besieges San’a: mots of the Jews of the city die from starvation.

1906: An Anglo-Turkish agreement refarding the southern bourder of Palestine. The Conference in Algeria defines the demarcation lines between the French and the Spanish zones of influence in Morocco. The first Hebrew secondary school, Gymnasia Herzliyah. Founding of Po’alei Zion, the ‘Workers of Zion” party. An arts school, Bezalel, is founded in Jerusalem.

1908: Jews take an active part in the revolution of the the Young Turks.Arthur Ruppin establishes the Palestine Office in Jaffa, an association for the purchase of buying land intended for agricultural settlement. Publication of the first volume of Ben-Yehuda’s dictionary, the first great dictionary of the Hebrew dictionary. Shemuel Yosef Agnon, the future Nobel Prize winner, publishes his first novel “Agunot” (‘Forsaken Wives”). A Zionist Delegation opens in Istanbul.

1909: A self-defense organization, Ha-Shomer (“The Watchman”) is founded by pioneers odf the Second Aliyah. Herzliyah is stransferred to the north of of Jaffa.

1909-1910: Founding of the first Jewish town in modern Palestine: Ahuzzat Bayyit, the future Tel Aviv. Acquisition of lands in the Jezreel Valley; the first settlement in the valley – Merhaviyah – will be founded 1911.

1910: Tunisian Jews are authorized as individuals to adopt French citizenships. Founding of Pardes, the citrus growers’ association in Petah-Tkvah. Founding of the first Nebrew daily newspaper in Palestine – Ha-Doar (“The Post”).

In the whole, the Jewish culture continues to develop in the Palestine, which belong to the Ottoman empire. The first and second waves of migration take place.

Questions:

1. What is the Jewish situation in the Western Europe?
2. Describe the Jewish culture of Eastern Europe.
3. Describe the situation of Jews in the Ottomane Empire.

37. Islamic world in 1870-1910.

A) The Ottoman Empire in 1870-1910.

Sultan Abdülaziz (1861-1876) continues the reforms. Abdülhamid II (1876-1909) is his successor.

1875 state is bankrupt; from 1881 state debts are administrated internationally. 1876 the great vizier Midhat Pasha proclaims a new constitution: prescribes a parliament after the Belgian example, an independent jurisprudence (as the rule, the judge is not to be dismissed), equality for the law without difference of religion, personal security, prohibition of foltering, press freedom. The first superficial features of Europeisation are introduced: instead of turban and caftan the fes and stabulin, a fashionable dress for walking, are introducing. A first European symphony orchester is founded. But Abdülhamid II stopps the attempts of reforms, he dissolves the parliament, abolishes the constitution 1878 and rules despotically. The [hase of decay begins. Midhat Pasha is dismissed and murdered in exile 1883. Despite the fall, the reform attempts have an important significance for the reforms of Kemal Atatürk in the 20th century; they have influenced thinking of many Turk intellectuals, among them writers Mehmet Namik Kemal (1840-88) and Ziya Pasha (1825-80) and the journalist Ibrahim Sinasi (1826-71). They defended Islam against the Western accusation that it could not be reformed. For the first time there are secular thinking about an Islam which could be equal to the Western culture. Against the authoritarian government an opposition is formed, partly in Paris exile. From 1860 the opposition (students, officers) are collected against autocracy and foreign tutelage. Already 1865-70 a group of the Young Ottomanes with the mottoes “Patriotism, constutionalism, modernism” is constituted. After the suppression of this group partly in the French exile the Young Turk movement is built (1896). Officers’ groups like the committee “Freedom and progress” (1891) and the founded 1905 in Damascus secret union Mustafa Kemal’s (Ataturk) are united to the Young Turkish party. 1907 in Saloniki it unites with other groups to a “Committee for unity and progress”. Because of fear for division and for the constitution of 1876 the military revolt in Saloniki, led by Enver Pasha (1881-1922), takes place. Crises, revolts (Albania, Arabia), the contre-revolt and dethronement of Sultan take place. His brother Mohammed (Mehmed) V (1909-18) becomes a constitutionary Sultan. Parliament is summoned again.

In Iraq reforms in administration, tax system and agrarian constitution are made by governor Midhat Pasha (1869-72); in Syria tanzimat reforms are made like in the core region (1866-1880): administration, infrastructure, school system, agriculture. All theses reform attempts are stopped 1900 because of following grounds: 1. The reforms are suppressed by the colonial powers, from which one depends economically. 2. There are reforms from above through an elite, which are mostly the adaptations of Western ideas, without a real structure change of society. 3. The reactionary feudal lords and the Islamic orthodoxy make resistance.

 1878 after the Berlin congress the empire loses the territories in Balkans. Cyprus becomes British. 1890-97 revolts and “Christians’ abomination” in Armenia discredit the regime. 1895 Germany does not support the British plan of division (Salisbury) and becomes the railway concessions for it (Anatolian and Bagdad railway). In Greek-Turkisch War (1896/7) for Crete it becomes autonomous after the Greek governor. Yemen, which became the Ottomane 1869, is lost 1904. 1891 the great anti-Ottomane revolt of Muhammed Yahya Hamid al-din begins. 1905 Imam Yahya besieges San’a. The Maghreb states came under the French control. After the peace of San Stephano in Prizren (Kosovo) the Albanians found a “League for the securing of rights of Albanian nation”. This is dissolved by the Porta 1881, but a goal to prevent a division among the neighbor states is followed. Initially Albanians (among which there are 70% Muslims, 20% Orthodox and 10% Catholic), divided into four vilayets, try to get the status of an autonomous princedom inside the Ottomane Empire. 1908 in Monastir the first national congress is summoned. In the same year Bosnia and Herzegovina are annexed by Austria-Hungary, the Sanjak is given back to the Ottomane Empire.

In the culture Abdarrahman al-Kawakibi (1849-1902), born in Aleppo, sees the main cause of the stagnation in the Arabic – Islamic world in the despotism; he makes an utopy of the Islamic ideal state with a Caliphate in Mecca as center of the Islamic world and proves his idea of democracy from the Qoran principle (shura = council, Sura 42). The Christian Jibran Khalil Jibran (1883-1931) studies Arabic literature in Beirut (1897-1902), in Boston (1903-08) and painting in Paris (1908-12). In short stories, novels, essays and theater plays he is a leading representative of Romanticism in the modern Arabic literature. Under the order of the Orroman government Bahaalah (1817-92) lives in exile in Akka (Iraq) and works against Iran subversively. His son Abbas Efendi (Abdulbaha; 1844-1921) is a leader of the Bahai movement.

1875 Jesuites’ college in Beirut is founded.

1877 the newspaper “al-Muqtataf” in Beirut is founded.

In the whole, in this period in the Ottomane empire after the initially reforms it is a period of stagnation. It ends 1907-09 with the Young Turk revolt and dethronement of Sultan. It loses territories in the Balkans and elsewhere.

B) Iran and Central Asia in 1870-1910.

In Iran Nasiraddin Schah rules from 1848 till 96. He makes many travels to Europe (1873, 1887, 1889), therefore the Western influence is strengthened in Persia (telegraphs are introduced, development of press and schools, which propagate liberal ideas. 1872 to the English Baron de Reuter the big concession for the economic exploration and exploitation of Persia is given. 1876, after the incorporation of Belujistan in British India, the frontier treaties between the UK, Persia and Afghanistan are made (furthers are 1879, 1880, 1893, 1895, 1896). Great vizier Mirza Husain Khan (1870-73) reforms the cabinet and the jurisprudence. To the end of the century the open conflict between the clergy and the Western power begins. 1890 Nasiraddin Shah gives the monopoly for the control of planting, selling and export of tobacco to the Brite Talbot; therefore 1891 all tobacco wares are boycotted because of the law recommendation of clergy, connected with the bazaar. The boycott is also a protest against the exploitation of Persia by European powers. The fight against the Shah is supported with the al-Afghani’s agitation from the Turk exile. 1892 Shah abolishes concessions under the pressure of the clergy. After it Persia gets high foreign debt. Mirza Muhammad Hasan Shirazi (1864-95) from Samarra is accepted as the highest authority of Mujtahids. 1896 Nasiraddin Shah is killed by a supporter of al-Afghani. 1896-97 further economic concessions are given to the European powers.

Muzafaraddin Shah (1896-1907), his son, summons a national assembly 1906 under the influence of peoples’ revolts in Teheran and Qom under the leadership of clergy and edits a parliamentarian constitution 1907, according to which the spiritual control in the secular spheres is strengthened and the Shiah of twelve is accepted as the state religion. It is abolished by his successor Muhammad Ali Shah (1907-09). 1907 Russia and the UK unite in the question of the interest spheres in Persia; a “neutral” refion remains free for concessions for both powers. Reign of this Shah is an important stage in the emancipation of Iranian Jews; in 1906 the first Persian parliament (majilis) officially expresses gratitude to the Jewish community for its contribution to the modernization of Iran.

In the culture Saiyid Jamaladdin al-Afghani (1838-97) is the most famous person. He pretens to be born in Afghanistan near Kabul to document that he is not a Shiite. Really he is possibly from Hamadan in Persia. As religious-political agitator he represents a modern Panislamism and tries to get an influence for the practical politics in Iran, in Egypt and in the Ottomane Empire. Stations of his “wanderings” are India (1857), Afghanistan, Istanbul (1870 deportation), Egypt, India, London, Teheran (1871-79); 1884 he lives together with Muhammad Abduh in Paris, goes to Russia 1887, 1889-91 is newly in Iran; in the same year he is deported from Iraq and from 1892 is practically a prisoner of Sultan in Istanbul, where he dies 1897.

1884 Arabic weekly “al-urwa al-wuthqa” (“the unsolvable strip”) in Paris is published by al-Afghani and Muhammad Abduh.

1890 newspaper “Qanun” (law) in London is published by Mirza Malqam Khan (1833-1909), initially Persian embassador, then free writer. Radical law state reforms are demanded; the newspaper is prohibited in Persia, but is propagated in underground.

1898: The Alliance Israelite Universelle opens its first school in Teheran, and others follow shortly afterwards in many other provincial town.

In the whole, Iran comes under the influence of the Western powers and loses its indepence more and more.

In Afghanistan 1863 till 1879 Sehir Ali Khan rules. 1878-80 the II British-Afghanian War is made; according to the treaty of Gandamak (1880) the access to from Afghanistan to the Knaiber passage is given under the British control.

He is succeded by Abdarrahman (1879-1901). He gives protection and control rights to the UK. 1883-86, in the time of Russian-Afghanian War, Russia occupies the region of Merv (1884); 1884/86 and 1895 further frontiers between Russia and Afghanistan are delimitated. At the end, Russia goes tuill the Pamir highland. For the securing against India the Durand line is begun 1893.

1901-1919 Emir Habib Ullah rules. 1903 the frontier between Afghanistan and British India is finally delimitated through the Durand line. Between nominal and real frontier a nobody’s land is organized.

In Central Asia Khanate Khiva becomes a Russian protectorate 1873 and remains it till 1920. 1876 Khanate Kokand is finally conquered. Russia and China meet in Central Asia. 1871 Russian come to the east in the Ili region; but it is given to Chinese 1881. 1884 Xinjiang becomes a Chinese province. 1881-95 the final frontier of Russia to Persia and Afghanistan are delimitated.

In the whole, Afghanistan remains independent, in difference to the other Central Asian states, which come under the Russian power.

Questions:

1. Discuss the history of the Ottomane Empire in this time.
2. What is new in the Arabic culture in this time?
3. Describe the history of Iran and Afghanistan in this period.

38. Africa in 1870-1910.

A) North Africa in 1870-1910.

In Morocco the tax and administration system is modernized by Sultan Mulay al-Hasan (1873-94). 1880 the Madrid conference for the regulation of rights of European states in Sultanate Morocco (Alids’ dynasty). Algeria remains French. In Tunis reform of administration and state budget is made by the Ottomane great vizier Khairaddin Pasha (1873-77). 1881 French protectorate over Tunis is established. From Algeria and Senegal the Sahara is explored and the Western Sudan is “pacified” by France. Segu is ruled by the El Hadj Omar’s son Ahmandu (died 1900). Rabeh (died 1900), the ‘Napoleon of Africa”, extends his supremacy over Bornu, Bagirmi and Wadai (1880-99), till he is defeated by the French army 1900. Samori Turé (1830-98) makes hard justice, has a developed tax system and well-organized troops, he fights in the South Western Africa. 1887 he concludes protection treaty with France. 1904 the general government West Africa (AOF) is established. “France to the other side of the sea” becomes the French grain chamber, a part of the European settlers grows till 13 % of population till 1906. The plan of the surrounding of Egypt or the West-Eastern Sudan state causes the Fashoda crisis with England at the Upper Nile (1898). General Kitchener demands the retreat of the French expedition Marchand’s. Foreign minister Delcassé calls Marchand back. Sudan treaty is concluded, 1902 secret treaty with Italy about Tripolis is concluded, then the understanding about Morocco and Egypt follows. In the time of the First Morocco crisis Prime Minister Rouvier dismisses Delcassé. 1906 Algericas conference takes place: German recognizion of the French”exceptionary position” in Morocco is made. Fes is occupied and the Second Morocco crisis (1911) takes place, pacified in the German-French Kongo treaty. General Lyautey (1854-34) rules the Sultanate almost absolutely, without changing political and social structures. Tripolis is annceted by Italy (1911).

In Egypt Ismail Pasha (1863-79) conquers Darfor (1874), fights Abessinia, but spends money for buildings, railways and reforms. Therefore 1875 the Egyptian Suez channel share are sold to the UK. The overthrow of Ismail does not save the land from the international finance control. 1881 national revolt (war minister Arabi Pasha) in Alexandria and British intrusion take place. 1882 Egypt is occupied by the British, the reforms are over.

In the East Sudan Mohammed Akhmed (1843-85) ibn Abdallah as Mahdi preaches the holy war against Egypt. 1881-83 Mahdi revolt takes place. After his death (1885) Abdallah Abu Bakr takes over the fight without the charism of Mahdo. 1885 Khartum is taken. Emin Pasha (Eduard Schnitzer), General governor of Equatoria, is established and is liberated by Stanley 1888. British counter-attack under Lord Kitchener (1850-1916) takes place. 1898 the Mahdists are defeated at Omdurman. 11,000 Mahdi fighters are killed. 1899 Sudan becomes the English-English condominium.

In Abessinia the British pretendent John IV (1872-89) beats Egyptian attacks (1875-79). Against Abessinian resistance (1887-90) Massaua (1885) is extended to the Italian colony Eritrea. Menelik II (1889-1910) proclaims himself to the Negus Negesti with the Italian help. 1889 treaty of Ucciali is concluded: Abessinia becomes a protectorate. In the same year Italian Somalia land is annexed. In Somalia 1895-1920 holy war of Salihiya under Saiyid Muhammad Abdille Hassan (1864-1920) against would-be hereticians, Ethiopians and Brits takes place. Oversetimating the Italian power, after the abolishion of the protectorate treaty by Menelik II Italy begins the war against Abessinia (1894). 1896 the defeat of Adua follows. The plan of establishing of Abessinian colonial state is liquidated in the treaty of Addis Abeba. 1888-1892 famine killed thousands of Falashas. 1904 first visit to Ethiopia by Jacques Faïtlovitch, the student of orientalist Joseph Halevy, who had visited it 1867-68, on behalf of the Alliance Israelite Universelle. The following year he publishes his “Notes d’un voyage chez les Falachas”.

In the culture the Europeisation takes place. Egyptology develops, Wallis Budge (UK), Erman und Sethe (Germany), Golenishchev and Turaev (Russia) are famous Egyptologists. Cairo: 1875 newspaper “Al-Ahram” is founded by the family Taqla; 1892 literary newspaper “al-Hilal” – by Jurji Zaidan (1861-1914); 1898 reform newspaper “al-Manar” - by Muhammad Rashid Rida (1865-1835), pupil of Muhammad Abduh. Muhammad Abduh (1849-1905), for a some time a companion of al-Afghani, makes foundations of Salafiya: independent thinking in the erxercizing of ijtihad; instead of uncritical imitating the predecessors, one must return to the “Islam of pious ancestors” (as-salaf as-salih). At the foundation of the rediscovered initial Islam the modern Islamic states can be founded. The Salafiya is the connection of religious revival and political reform movement. In the neglection of education and growing up Muhammad Abduh sees the ground for the economic decay in the Islamic world. Expelled from Egypt 1882-1888, he works at the Azhar in Cairo 1892-1905 and is Mufri of Egypt from 1899. His pupil Mustafa Lutfi al-Manfaluti (1876-1924) adopts topics and style of the French literature of the 19th century for the Arabic. He fights against the censure of literature through the clergy, but also against the primitive imitation of the Western civilization.

1875 in Tunis College Chadiqi is founded.

In the whole, the North African state appear more and more under the power of the Western (English, French, Italian) colonisators, becoming their colonies or protectorates. The culture is westernized.

B. Central and South Africa in 1870-1910.

The Scott David Livingstone made many travels into the Southern and Central Africa from 1840 till 1873. He saw the Victoria fall as the first European. 1871 the explorer Stanley (1841-1904) searches D. Livingstone and finds him in Ujiji at Tanganyika Sea in Tansania. The Royal Geographical Society gave him an order to find the Nile sources. His personal motivation was the fight against the Portuguese and African slave traders. Besides it, he founded many missionary stations. 1873 the British government caused the Sultan of Sansibar to stop the slave transport of slaves to the Middle East and to Asia. Portugal stopped the slave trade from Angola and Madagaskar to Brasil only ca. 1880.

In the concurrence for the partition of Africa the British imperialism gets direction and goal in Cape-Cairo plan. 1874 in West Africa the Brites subjugate the Ashanti state and found the colony Gold Coast. 1879 the Zulu war ends with the destruction of Zulu state by the Brites. In the North Cromer (1841-1917) invades till Sudan from the north, in the south Cecil Rhodes (1853-1902) uses power and riches, won with the monopoly over South African diamonds and gold fever, for the British interests. Led by him South African Company takes Bechuana Land (1885) and Rhodesia (1888-91). Somalia land (1884), Uganda (1895), Kenia (1886) also became British.

With the exploration of the Central Africa the colonial interest grows. Leopold II of Belgium (1865-1909) as the first understands the new exploitation possibilities. In the order of the founded by him Kongo society Stanley explores the Kongo region, which is talen by Leopold II at the Kongo conference in berlin (1884/5) against British and Portugal pretensions.

1877 the Brites annexe Transvaal. Therefore the Boer revolt takes place 1880/81 and the Brites are defeated. President “Ohm” Paul Kruger rules the independent republic 1883 till 1902. Gold camps at Johannesburg (founded 1886) awaiken British interests. Therefore the land is encircled with the colonies (Bechuana-, Swasiland, Rhodesia). 189-96 Cecil Rhodes is a prime Minister of the Cape colony. He supports the unsuccessful Jameson attack (1895/6) to overthrow Kruger. 1899-1902 the Boer War begins. Initial successes of General Smuts (1870-1950), Botha and Hertzog, but militarily supremacy (Kitchener) and hard British war methods (concentration camps) break the Boers’ resistance. 1902 the peace of Vereeniging is comclided. The Boer republic lose their independence. After the British victory the Boers got self-administration, Dutch becomes the official language. 1910 the Boer republics together with the Cape colony and Natal are united to the South African Union as a part of the British Commonwealth under Prime Minister Botha. Africans have lost their tribal regions. From 1860 many Asians lived in South Africa, who worked at the sugar plantations, among them famous Indian leader Mahatma Gandhi, who was one of the founders of the African National Congress (ANC) 1912.

France takes the Equatorial Africa (general government AEF, 1910) without blood. It is a success of Brazza (1852-1905), who explores French Kongo, concludes treaties with African chieftains and resists the exploitation of region through private societies. 1895/6 Madagascar is subjugated and annexed; General Galliéni accommodates the colonial regime to the character of land.

1882 Germany founds the colonial union (Bennigsen, Rohlfs) and the Society for German colonization (1884) by Carl Peters (1856-1918), the “inventor of the German world policy”. Private treaties with aborigines are concluded in South (Lüderitz, 1883), West (Woermann) and East Africa (Peters, Count Pfeil). At the Kongo conference in Berlin (1884/5) Bismarck reaches the building of s neutral Kongo state with trade free for all nations. Using the favorable political situation (British-French binding in Egypt, friendship with Austria, Italy, Russia; talks with France). Bismarck follows reluctantly the “flag of trade”. German protectorates are: 1884 German South-West Africa: with treaties deliminations are made against Angola 1886, to Cape land 1890. Protective troops (1889) fight revolts of Herero and Hottentottes 1889-1906. The most important settlement colony receives self-government 1907. 1884 Kamerun, Togo: imperial commissar Nachtigal gets the British recognizing, refusing from pretensions (Nigeria). 1885 German East Africa: building of a protective troop (Wissmann) with Africans (Askari) against revolting Arabs 1889/90. 1890 Sansibar treaty: the exchange of Sansibar against Helgoland with refuse from Uganda is criticized.

In the whole, to the end of the period Africa is divided between the European colonial powers. Only Abessinia remains independent de iure.

Questions:

1. Discuss the development of North Africa in this period.
2. 2. What was the colonial policy of Western powers in Central and South Africa?

39. India and neighbor countries in 1870-1910.

A) India in 1870-1910.

1877 India becomes an Empire, Queen Victoria takes the title “Emperess of India”. A thin dominating layer of Hindus, educated at the English colleges, can take part at the power in administration, justice, finance and education. Exploration of the land (railways, irrigation works, building of havens). The modernization in administration and economy does not help to the main mass of population. British industry wares liquidate the autonomous village economy and the Indian cotton production. Unemployment and over-population grow. Big jute, tea and indigo plantations with British capital. Therefore the resistance grows. After the defeat of the Sepoy revolt 1858 initially the intellectual elite, partly obliged to the modern thinking, demands for the independence. 1885 the politically important Indian National Congress is founded by Hindu intellectuals in Bombay; liberal Englishmen take part. Initially moderated like Surendranath Banerji (1848-1925) and Krishna Ghopale Gokhale (1866-1915) play the main part. They strive for a ‘Strengthening of connection between England and India” as foundation of a later independence, the Hindus must study the self-government step by step. 1892 limited election right for the central parliament is allowed; high Indian officials can participate in city administration and in the council of the vice-king and in the provinces. At the contrary, the more radical Bal Gangadhar Tilak (1856-1920), the “Father of Indian unrest”, strives for a national revolution. In his works he defends the idea of the Northern origin of Aryas. His “New party” strengthens after hungers and pestilence epidemies (1896/7). A specifically Muslim reform movement is organized by Sir Saiyid Ahmad (1817-98), who founds the College in Aligarh 1875. The famous Urdu poet Sir Muhammad Iqbal (1873-1938) is the most active, on the other side he propagates a Muslim state in North-West India and a modern Islam. 1876-87 Belujistan is incorporated. The puffer state Sikkim is built 1890. 1892 College Zahira in Ceylon is founded. Vice-king Lord Curzon (1898-1905) pacifies Afghanian frontier tribes; North-Western province is built (1901). 1903/04 expedition to Tibet is made. 1904 trade treaty of Lhasa; the conference of Simla strives for the autonomy of Tibet from China. 1905, after the partition of Bengaly by the British colonial power, appears a province with Islamic majority; the independence movement escalates (boycott of British textile, bombing attempts) , but also the opposition between Hindus and Muslims. 1906 in Simla against the Hindu opposition the “All-Indian Muslim League” under presidency of Aga Khan, a head of the Ismailites’ sect, is founded. The partition is abolished.

Famous persons of culture are:

Sir Sayid Ahmad Khan (1817-98), made noble in England, cooperates with the Brites; he tries to modernize and demythologize the person of Muhammad, founds the newpaper “Polishing of the moral qualities”, died in Aligarh.

Khiragh Ali (died 1895), his co-worker, postulates that Muhammad is unfallible only in religious questions.

Saiyd Amir Ali (1849-1928), Shiite from Kalkutta, lawyer, writes in London in English for a European public. For him Muhammad is an exemplary, modern man, Islam – a progressive teaching.

Sir Dr.Muhammad Iqbal (died in Sialkot 1877, died in Lahore 1938), dissertation about Persian lyric, study in Cambridge, lived in Heidelberg and Munich; influence of Dante, Goethe, Nietzsche, Bergson and the English Romanticism, writes in Urdu and Persian. He wants to modernize Islam through the connection of an idealized initial Islam with modern ideas (therefore he thinks about the strengthening of self as foundation of thinking). He is thought to be a “spiritual father” of Pakistan (1930 speech for the “All India Muslim League”).

Dayânand Sarasvatî (1824-83) calls to return back to the original Veda teaching in “Ârya Samâj” (1875).

The village Hindu saint Ramakrishna (1836-1886) connects Western education with Hindu piety. His pupil Vivekananda (1861-1900) propagates Yoga and ‘Ramakrishna Gospel”. Aurobindo Ghosh (1872-1950), educated in England, creates a new system of Yoga and fights against the Englishmen. Hariśćandra from Benares (1850-83) is a famous Hindi prose writer and poet. Râjâ Lakṣmaṇ Singh (1826-99) elaborated the “Śakuntalâ” in Hindi. In Gujarati Brahman Narmadâśankar (1833-1886) from Surat is a first famous prose writer. His contemporary and rival is Dalpatrâm (1820-98), a secretary of a “Gujarat Vernacular Society”. Govardhanrâm Tripâṭhîs (1855-1907) is a famous novel writer, his main work is “Sarasvatîcandra” (1887-1901) in four volumes. Famous poets are: Bhoḷanâth Sârâbhâî (1823-86), a founder of the religious reformatoric Prârthanâ-samâj and composer of religious hymns; the Parsee patriot Behrâmjî Malabari (1853-1912); the young prince Sursinghji of Lathi (1874-1900), who wrote poems under the name “Kalâpî” (peacock). Bankimcandra Caṭṭopâdhyâya (1834-98) is a “father of Bengalian novel”. Another famous Bengalian prose writers are Târaknâth Ganguli, Râmeścandra Datt and Nabînacandra Sen (1846-1909). Dvijendralâl Rây was a famous poet. Rabîndranâth Ṭhâkur (Tagore) is a most famous Bengalian poet and playwright. Rajanîkânta Sen (1866-1910) is a famous lyric poet.

1875: The Sassoon family establishes a special school for Bene Israel in Bombay.

1884: “Maghen David”, the largest synagogue in the Far East, is built in Calcutta.

In the whole, India remains under the British colonial power in this time. Despite it, Indian culture develops by Muslims and Hindus. Striving for independence unites different people and intellectuals in the different organizations.

B) Indochina and Indonesia in 1870-1910.

After the 3rd Burma war (1885/6) the remnants of state are incorporated in the British Empire (1891). The second center of the French colonial empire grows in the fights with the ‘Black flags” (remnants of the Chinese Taiping rebels0 and with China for Tonking (1873-86). 1883 French protectorate over Annam (treaty of Hué) is proclaimed, which China has to confirm in the peace of Tientsin (1885). 1887 the Indochinese Union is built. Further territories are made at the cost of Siam, which is made a modern state through European reforms from 1880s. King Chulalongkorn rules in the country in 1868-1910. He recognizes the French protectorate over Laos in the treaty of Bangkok (1893). 1896 England and France secure the neutrality of Siam. The frontier against French Indochina is delimitated 1907. In Camboja Norodon (1859-1904) rules under the French protectorate. In the French Indochina new syncretistic religion – Caodaism appears with the influence of Spiritualism.

In Malacca 1866-73 the civil war between the center and the chieftains for the partition of profits from the tin export and against the Chinese overweight take place/ 1891-95 revolt of the To Bahaman in Pahang against the British domination and for the independence takes place. 1895 in Malaya the Idrisiya order is introduced (also called Ahmadiya). Saiyid Shaikh bin Ahmad al-Hadi (1867-1934; Pulau, Singapur) founds the modernist movement in Malaya. 1906 modernistic newspaper “al-Imam” in Singapur is founded; modernism is also supported by the Dutch scholar and administration official Snouck Hungronje.

Till 1910 the Dutch colonial empire encompasses almost all regions of the modern Indonesia. The colonial empire is divided into 34 “residences” under the governors; the native economy is divided in about 300 princedoms. The land is leased by agrarian societies and separate colonists for plantations; the state also organizes plantations: sugar cane, coffee, tea, cauchuc, pepper, spices, tobacco are planted. As export wares tin (from British Malacca) and diamonds, later oil, coal and gold are used. Native population plants rice for own provision. There are different groups of native population in relation to colonisators, but all of them want to get independence (with or without colonial power). In Sumatra 1873-1908 Atjeh wars against the Dutch supremacy take place: a guerilla war till the exhaustion of Atjeh people is made; the Dutch give them a certain autonomy. In Borneo 1857-1905 civil wars between the separate Sultans take place. In Sulu 1878 guerilla war against the Spanish conquest (1811-78) takes place. 1900-1909 the Dutch try to differentiate between Islam as resistence movement as from Islam as religion. 1910 the colonial power tries to integrate the native culture of the archipelago in the colonial society with the “ethic-clerical” policy.

1901 Commonwealth of Australia and 1907 New Sealand receive the dominion status.

In the whole, Indochina and Indonesia are ruled by the foreign European powers, as well as Australia and New Sealand. Only Siam remains independent.

Questions:

1. Describe the history of India in this time.
2. What were the main achievements of Indian culture in this period?
3. Describe the history of Indochina and Indonesia in this time.

40. China and neighbor countries in 1870-1910.

A) China and neighbor countries.

In China **Empress Dowager Cixi** (29 November 1835 – 15 November 1908), of the Manchu Yehenara clan, was a powerful and charismatic woman who unofficially but effectively controlled the Manchu Qing Dynasty in China for 47 years from 1861 to her death in 1908.

Selected by the Xianfeng Emperor as an imperial concubine in her adolescence, she gave birth to his son, who became the Tongzhi Emperor (1861-74) upon Xianfeng's death. Cixi ousted a group of regents appointed by the late emperor and assumed regency over her young son with the Empress Dowager Ci’an. Cixi then consolidated control over the dynasty when, at the death of the Tongzhi Emperor, contrary to the rules of succession, she installed her nephew as the Guangxu emperor (1875-1908) in 1875. Although she refused to adopt Western models of government, she nonetheless supported the technological and military Self-Strengthening Movement. Cixi rejected the Hundred Days’ Reforms of 1898 as impractical and detrimental to dynastic power and placed the Guangxu Emperor under house arrest for supporting reformers. After the Boxer Rebellion and the invasion of Alled armies, external and internal pressures led Cixi to effect institutional changes of just the sort she had resisted and appoint reform-minded officials. The dynasty collapsed a few years after Guanxu and her death. A child Aisin Gyoro Pu Yi (1906-67) was a last emperor (1908-1912).

Although she was known at the time as "Old Buddha," historians and popular culture in China and abroad portrayed her as the villain responsible for the disintegration of the dynasty. However, some have argued that her opponents among the reformers succeeded in making her a scapegoat for problems beyond her control that she stepped in to prevent disorder, that she was no more ruthless than other rulers, and that she was even an effective if reluctant reformer in the last years of her life.

1870 revolt in Tienjin takes place: murder of the French consul and European “sin mission”. 1885 French protectorate over Tonking is recognized; 1886 Burma is given to England. In the Chinese-Japanese War (1894/5) Formosa (Taiwan) is lost. As repression for the murder of two missionares Germans occupy Tsingdao (1897); concession for the Shandong railway and leasing treaty of 1898 (purchase of Kiauzhou for 99 years). Alike treaties are concluded with Russia (Dairen), England (Weihaiwei) and France (Guanzhouwan). Hate against the “foreign devils” causes the Boxer Rebellion 1900: massacres of Christians, murder of the German embassador; punishing expedition under German commando (Count Waldersee) with the participation of other countries, among them Russia, follows. In Boxer protocol (1901) Chinese retribution actions follow. Mistrust prevents the partition of China; therefore the colonial power unite themselves for the “politics of the open door” (common market for the “economical penetration” of China).

Inside the country from Yunnan Muslim revolts extend 1864-78. 1865-77 Yakub Beg, Khan of Kashgar, founds a Turk state for uniting of all Muslims. Chancellor Lu Hungchang (1823-1901) restaurates the imperial order, partly with European help (adventures’ troop of Mayor Gordon). 1881 Jungaria, partly Russian, returns to China. 1884 East Turkestan, earlier a frontier region under Chinese military supremacy, becomes a regulary Chinese province under the name Xinjang (“New land”). Because of the revolts Muslims in China are suppressed and restricted stronger: prohibition of some professions, restrictions of traveling, for all to Mecca, deportations, ghettoisation.

Intruding of Western capitalization: cheap industry wares destroy hand crafts, which causes social decay and sinking life standard in the densely populated land regions. In the growing haven cities a proletariat and revolutionary intellectuals appear. 1898 the first Jews settle in Harbin. Translaters (Yu Fu, 1853-1921) transmiss modern European thinking. Reformers like Kang Yuwei (1858-1927) influence the emperor. Against his reforms 1898 coup d’etat of the reaction (Cixi) takes place: internation of the emperor, execution of the reformers, promotion of the ‘Boxers”. Foreign pressure and paralysis of the domestic policy cause the liquidation of the old examination system (1905) and the renovation of the army (General Yuan Shikai, 1859-1916). 1905 following the Russo-Japanese War and pogroms in Russia, the Harbin community grows from 500 to 8000. 1905 foundation of the Guomindang (National people’s party) by the Doctor Sung Yatsen (1866-1925). His program of the “three principles” (national own life, democracy, existence security for all) is propagated by students and mission pupils). 1911 revolution of Young Chinese for the radical renovation of China takes place; the Mabzhu dynasty abdicates. 1912 Sun Yatsen proclaims the republic in Nanjing, but gives the presidency to Yuan Shikai to get military for the keeping of the imperial unity. Outside Mongolia and Tibet proclaim their independence.

In Korea Joseon dynasty rules till 1897, then Korean empire is proclaims. Emperors are

Gojong (1863-1907) and Sunjong (1907-1910).

In the whole, China decays in this period and becomes a prey of the foreign countries, despite the modernization. Therefore the Manzhu dynasty loses its power.

B) Japan in 1870-1910.

Mutsuhito ruled 1867 till 1912. In the time of the “enlightened rule of the emperor” (Meiji Tenno) the modern Japan appears. He recognizes that the country is endangered if it does not take over the European experience. Change is made in three periods:

1.Overcoming of the old feudal structure.

The Southern Daimyos gave their power to the emperor voluntarily, who could bring into the life the proclaimed 1869 “Program of the new era” . Edo was renamed to Tokio. 1871 the feudal order is abolished; instead of the fiefs new administrative districts are instituted; state rents for the nobility are introduced. The prohibition of the traveling abroad is liquidated; state finances the foreign study; European advisers are called.

1872 the general military obligation is introduced; the army is reorganized anew after French and Prussian example. In quick order general school obligation; police, press, law, post, railway (the first railway was built from Tokio till Yokohama 1872), health and finances (Yen currency after the American coin system; founding of the Bank of Japan). The abolishing of the Samurai pensions and the old sword right causes the last revolt of the opposition under Saigo Takamori 1877. The Samurai caste is abolished after the defeat at Kagoshima.

2.The inside elaboration of the reforms: in the new burocracy groups (clans) are built: the Conservative military party (Teiseito) is against the Western influence; it puts the attack for continent is more actual that social and economic reforms. The Progressive party (Kaishinto) also persecutes the extension of economic space, but also after Western reforms. The Radical party (Siyuto) demands a parliamentary order, but which is not directed neither against the “council of the old statesmen” (Genro: the “unseen power behind the throne”) nor against the God’s empire of the Tenno. 1878 the provincial parliaments are instituted. 1884 the upper house is built from the representatives of the court nobility (Kuge) and the Daimyo families, which get the new nobility titles in five ranks (from the prince till the baron). 1885 the first ministry, nominated by the Emperor, is summoned, 1888 the secret state council (Sumitsuin). Prince Ito Hirobumi (1841-1909), who was a famous diplomat and later a Prime Minister, composes the new constitution 1889 (constitutional hereditary monarchy) with an Emperor as head of the state power, upper and representatives’ house (300 members each), self-government of the cities and communities after the Prussian example. The political power is further in the hands of the big family clans. It defines the founded ca. 1900 Seiyukai party (Ito) and the Kenseihonto party. Prince Katsura was a Prime Minister 1901-06. In the ideology the national ideology Kokutai on the base of Shintoism is formed.

3. Ascent to the great power.

A strong increase in population (1867/26 mln.; 1913/52 mln.) favors the population. The connection with the world economics is achieved more quickly than expected because of the study zeal and discipline. Family trusts (among them Mitsui, Yasuda, Sumitomo) control industry, trade and banks. Their interest is directed mostly at the foreign ores (coal) and export markets. The Choshu clan (army) and the Satsuma clan (fleet) persecutes imperial goals; their concurrence determines the government. 1875 treaty with Russia about Sakhalin (Russian) and the Kurils (Japanese); 1876 the Bonin and Riu-Kiu islands. The intruding of Japanese and Chinese troops into the Korean Tonglak revolt causes the Chinese-Japanese War (1894/95). The advanced Japanese forces conquer Dairen (Dalien), Weihaiwei, Shandong, Seul. 1895 peace of Shimonosheki is concluded: China gives Formosa (Taiwan) and the Pescadores Islands to Japan, war retribution and recognizes the independence of Korea (1897 empire under Russian protection). From 1895 a war fleet is built (four armored cruisers, eight battle ships); taking part at the Ihetuang (boxers) revolt. 1902 the protective union with the UK against the Russian movement into East Asia is concluded. Attempts of the distinction of interests in Korea and Manzhuria end in the attack at Port Arthur: the Russia East Asia fleet is destroyed. 1904/05 Russian-Japanese War takes place. Japanese armies cause the capitulation of Port Arthur, occupy Korea and invade Manzhuria. 1905 victory at Mukden (Shengyan) upon the mainland, at Tsushima at sea: Admiral Togo destroyes the old Russian Baltic fleet after its voyage around half the land. 1905 peace of Portsmouth (USA) is concluded: Japan gets South Sakhalin (Karafuto), Port Arthur and the protectorate over Korea and the South Manzhuria. It is internationally recognized as new great power; 1907 friendship treaties with France and Russia; but the USA restricts the Japanese immigration. 1910 annexion of Korea (Chosen) takes place.

In the whole, Japan is modernized after the Western example and becomes the great power in this period, occupying Korea and Taiwan, but the national culture and way of life is preserved. Formally the return to the absolute rule of divine emperor and to the national culture and religion is declared. Japan supports the countries of Entente.

Questions:

1. Describe the history of China in this period.
2. What are the main features of Japanese modernization after the Meiji revolution?

Results of the XXIII period.

Period begins with France-Prussian war. The result of the defeat in the war for France was the last revolution – Commune of Paris, after which suppression the Third republic begins (till 1940). Notice that this extremist revolution was not only the result of the First International, which soon (1875) ceased its existence. It was succeeded by the socialist parties in the separate lands, which united into the Second International 1889. After 1871 in Europe there are no wars, but in Asia and Africa colonial wars took place, in result of which the most part of these continents becomes dependent from the great powers of that time (Great Britain, France, Germany, Japan, USA and Russia). At the contrary, Brasil becomes independent, and the colonies of Great Britain are reformed to the self-governing dominions. Great powers are developing rapidly, especially Germany, Japan and USA. After the proclamation of the German Empire (18 January 1871) under Wilhelm I the second macroperiod in the German history begins, the first one was from ca.450 till this time. In its first two periods (1871-90) Germany was led by Emperor Wilhelm I (till 1888) and Chancellor Bismarck. It is formally a federal state under the hegemony of Prussia with many-parties parliament (socialists are prohibited from 1878 till 1890). Frederic III rules for a short time 1888. Wilhelm III (1888-1918) dismisses Bismarck. Bismarck makes unions with Russia, Austria-Hungary (reorganized 1867) and Italy against France, which develops as a republic in the same periods. In foreign policy Germany gets colonies in Africa and in the Pacific. In the third and fourth periods (till 1908 the Bosnian crisis) Germany under Wilhelm II and different chancellors Germany militarizes and pretends for the “place under the sun”. It becomes the strongest European industrial nation. Its main ally is now Austria-Hungary (“the Nibelungs’ fidelity”), the relations to Russia becoming worse. The USA develop rapidly, becoming the first industrial power in the world, and also enter upon the way of imperialism (1898 – war with Spain, occupation of Cuba and Philippines). Russian empire extends till the Afghanian border, which became a puffer between Russian and Britain empires. The Ottoman empire and China decay fully and lose territories, the Young Turk revolution takes part in Turkey already 1908, Persia is divided into the spheres of interest between Russia and England. Notice that Russia is still not fully a capitalist and imperialist power, it is a feudal empire of the old type (with European capital St.-Petersburg), where capitalism is developing and 1905 the revolution begins (with retardation of 116 years to France). Therefore it is defeated the war with really modernizing Japan and loses Manzhuria (occupied 1900), 1910 Japanees occupy Korea. New military blocs – Entente (British-France, later Russia) and the Triple union are formed. Notice that logically the backward Russia should become an ally not of the forward Great Britain and France, but of the other such empires – Germany, Austria-Hungary and the Ottoman empire,but the principle, which was mentioned already in the “Artha-shastra” of Chanakya Kautilya: “My neighbor is my enemy, the neighbor of my enemy is my friend”. Besides it, Russia was indebted to France. 1908 Austria annexes Bosnia, which causes the Balkan wars and the events of 1914. Progress in the science has the invention of radio and appearance of cinema as its sequence, which soon became the strong propaganda tools (instead of the newspapers) in the hands of all political regimes. Painting is succeded with photos, the discoveries of Einstein and Curie attack all the old physics. It looks like the western civilization goes upon the way of progress in all spheres (the achievements in culture are great), but really civilization comes more and more close to the brother-killing world war. The nationalist and racist propaganda grows in all the imperialist countries, the modern anti-Semitism appears in France and other countries with pogroms of Jews, and as reaction to it – Zionism with its idea of Jewish return to the Holy Land. In literature also the propaganda of the “burden of the white man” (Kipling). The occult (spiritist, theosophic and anthroposophic) ideas) became popular.

Questions:

1.Decribe the 23rdperiod of the world history.

XXIV (VI) period.

4th period of the industrial society – 1910-1950 – period of militarism.

41. America in 1910-1950.

A) North America in 1910-1950.

1.Сanada.

After the begin of the WWI Canada declares the solidarity with the motherland (1914) and introduces the general military obligation against the resistence of Franco-Canadians (1917). Ca. 450,000 Canadians fight in Europe. More than 60,000 Canadians died in the First World War.Canada signs the Versailles treaty and enters the League of Nations. Inside policy: in the election of 1921 the Liberal Party (chairman: William Lyon Mackenzie King, 1874-1950) wins; another parties are the Conservative Party (under Arthur Meighen) and the Progressive Party (under T.A. Crear). 1921-30 King’s cabinet rules: with support of the Progressive party reforms are made (sinking of taxes, abolishment of debts, care about unemployed). 1926-29 economic prosperity takes place: wheat prices become higher, mines are exploited, railways are built, electric current production grows. The tendency of particularism in the province governments becomes stronger. The 1920s were, in general prosperous years for Canada. However like the rest of the world Canada suffered in the depression of the 1930s. Canada suffered from a huge drop in exports of timber, grain and fish.. 1929: World economic crisis: unemployment, export and national income sink for 50 percent. 1930-35 Conservative cabinet of Richard Bedford Bennett rules almost dictatorily. Customs growing and the customs privileges for the Canadian wares, made at the Imperial conference in Ottawa 1932, cannot help. At the regional level radical parties are built because of the unsatisfaction with the central government. By 1933 unemployment had soared to 23%. The government introduced relief works but economic hardship continued throughout the 1930s. The depression only ended when the Second World War began in 1939. The most laws of the reform plan of the Bennet’s cabinet (January 1935) (minimal working time and loans, unemployed a nd social security, credits for farmers) are declared unguilty by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in London after the election victory of the Liberals (“King or chaos”) in October 1935. The cabinet of King rules 1935-1948. The federalist system is questioned: a plan for the fighting with the economic crisis, guilty for the whole country, is abolished. 1937 the Rowell-Sirois commission for the investigation of the relations between state and provinces is appointed, which makes a spatious report 1940. Slow recovering of the land through the trade treaty with the USA (1935), the trade exchange between the USA, Canada and the UK (“North Atlantic Triangle”, 1938) and the arms race (1937/38).

Foreign policy: main goal of Canada is preventing of a break between the both main trade partners (UK and USA), the lands, which can support Canada in a case of politic crises, because its own military policy is not enough. The leader of the Conservatives, Sir Robert Laird Borden (1854-1937), defines the status of the dominions as “independent nations of the Imperial Commonwealth with right for an adequate voice in the foreign policy “ in the Imperial conference of 1917 (together with South African Smuts). Therefore in the Imperial conference of 1921 Canada takes position against the renovation of the English-Japanese union (looking at the USA) and at the Imperial conference of 1923 speaks against the centralization of the Commonwealth. The treaty between Canada and the USA of 1923 (fishing in the North Pacific) is a first step to an own Canadian foreign policy, which is determined strongly isolationist and causes the paralyzing of the League of Nations, but is over after the invading of Italy into Abessinia and the expansion policy of Germany. 1939 war announcement to Germany.

1933 New Foundland gives over the dominion status because of financial difficulties and becomes a crown colony.

In the time of the WWII the agrarian country develops an industry. An economic ascent in the after-war time is caused with strong demand for ores and alimentation, with immigration waves, with discovery of oil, metal ores and uran sources. A wellfare society is built. The Liberals under Mackenzie King and Louis Stephent St. Laurent plead for the decentralization of the Commonwealth. 1949 New Foundland becomes a tenth province.

In the whole, the Dominion of Canada develops intensively in this time and becomes in fact an independent country. However during World War II 45,000 Canadians were killed.

2.USA.

President Taft (1909-1913) brings antitrust laws into the life. President Woodrow Wilson (1913-1921) announces a program of the “new freedom”, liquidates protective customs, introduces progressive taxes and drives trusts back further. 1914 Panama channel is opened.

1912 Henrietta Szold founds the Women’s Zionist Movement, Hadassah, which devotes itself mainly to the establishment of medical facilities in Palestine. 1914-21 American Zionism under the leadership of Brandeis and his friends – Reform Rabbi Stephen Wise (1874-1949), liberal jurists Julian Mack and Felix Frankfurter, and founder of Hadassah Henrietta Szold. 1915 Yeshiva University, the first important Orthodox education institute in the United States, founded in 1897 at the Rabbi Isaac Ehanan Theological Seminary, now includes am elementary school, high school, college, and teacherrs’ institute.

From the begin of the WWI the USA are at the side of the allied. 1914, November 27: Establishment of the American Jewish Distribution Committee (the Joint), for aid and assistance to Jewish war refugees. The attacks at sea and the announcement of the unlimited submarine war by Germany cause the break of the diplomatic relations (February 1917). After the publication of the “Zimmermann telegram” (19.1.1917: German attempt to cause Mexico to enter the war) through the British government Wilson sends an embassy to the senate (2.4.1917). Then the war declaration of the USA to Germany (6.4.1917) and to the Austria-Hungary (7.12.1917) follows. 1,5 mln. Americans fight in Europe, 115,000 were lost. 250,000 Jews were mobilized, 3,500 of them were lost. 8.1.1918 the “fourteen points” are proclaimed by the President Wilson. 14.9.1918 Wilson is against the peace conference for Austria-Hungary. 3/4. 10. 1918 Germans propose cease of fire to Wilson on the base of 14 points. It is supported by Austria-Hungary. Amerian answer notes (8, 14, 23.10.1918) demand the end of the submarine war, evacuation of the occupied regions, democratic representatives. 14/15.10.1918 Turkish cabinets sends a cease of fire proposal to Wilson. 20.10.1918 Wilson demands recognizing of the independence wishes of the people of Austria-Hungary. 30.10.1918 cease of fire with Turkey, 3.11.1918 with Austria-Hungary, 11.11.1918 with Germany follow. 1919 Wilson takes part at the Versaille peace conference.

The “Big Business” period (1919-29).

Features of the time of the both first Republican presidents Warren Harding (1865-1923, 1921-23), election motto: “Back to Normalcy”, and Calvin Coolidge (1872-1929), 1923-1929 are 1. Reaction against the government of Democrate Wilson, whose coloured morally policy (“Progressive Movement”) is refused. 2.Isolationism in the foreign policy, because one sees itself cheated with the peace of Versaiiles. 3. Conflict between the mostly Aglosaxonic Protestant population of the country and the modern city industrial society under the leadership of intellectuals, technicians and economists. The revolt psuchosis (“Red Scare”) comes 1919-1920: strikes, bombs attempts, violence, which causes house checkings, investigations, imprisonments and deportations of the suspected elements. The method of Republican presidents to rule as less as possible causes corruption scandals. The “Big Business” is at the first plan. The multimillionary Andrew W. Mellon (1921-32 finance minister) is main representative of this movement, which prefers the people with big incomes through reduction of the government activity and tax sparings. The immigration is restricted with the laws (1921, 1924), influenced with the “Nordic” race theories. 1920 Alhohol prohibition (till 5.12.1933) (XVIIIth amendment to the constitution). The prohibition divides the population and parties into two camps (“Wet” and “Dry”) and causes contraband, gansters’ crimes and lawlessness. The Ku-Klux-Klan, founded anew 1915, is active in the South and the Middle West (1924-26). 1924 it has about five million members: fight in the name of moral against Afro-Americans, Catholics, Jews, intellectuals and “Wet”, enemies of the prohibition. From 1920 election right for the women is introduced. It is expression of the changed position of the women in the American society (equal rights for man and woman); the number of the working women grows from two (1914) to ten million (1930). Sharp customs laws (1921, 1922, 1930) are expression of the traditionally Republican protectionism. The framers are neglected, who have debts and empoverish because of the overproposal of the agrarian products and the erosion harm (Dust bowl). Besides it, the economic prosperity of the industry because of the production increase, mass wares production, improving of the working process (conveyer); the industry production is doubled from 1921 till 1929 because f the technical innovations (for all consumption wares, building and car industry: 1913 15 mill., 1929 26 mill. of cars). Strong consentration in the car factories, in the provision industry, at the banks and in the separate trade (“Chain stores”).

The economic crisis (1929-32)

Herbert C. Hoover (1874-1964) is a President from 1929 till 1933. The economic depression is a consequence of the inflation of the credit market. 25.10.1929 “Black Friday”: the crash of the New Your stock market (23-29.10.1929) initiates the economic crisis. Industry papers fall from 452 (1929) till 58 (1932), the industry production sinks for 54 percent from 1929 till 1932. The good will of the business world lacks. The stores of grain and cotton grow, the agricultural tilling territory is tightened. The Government makes higher the protective customs and founds the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, which has to oppose the deflationist policy of the banks, but is misused for the consolidation of the big banks. Therefore the economic crisis cannot be overcome with these measures. It is not restricted only with the USA territory; the international paying movement in Europe is broken. The number of the unemployed in the USA grows till 15 mln., the help for the unemployed is not satisfying. 20.6.1931: Hoover moratorium – all war debts of the European governments against the USA are abolished.

The USA foreign policy.

Against Europe the USA represent a policy of the isolation, in the Central and South America they swing between the ‘Dollar imperialism”, defined with economic interests, and the realization of a Panamerican solidarity, which is realized in Gondra treaty of 1923 (cooperation between separate states despite tensions) and later in the “policy of the good neighborship” of Roosevelt. 19.3.1920 the Senate refuses to ratificate the Versailles treaty. 25.8.1921 a separate treaty with Germany is concluded without taking over of the League of Nations statute and the war guilt articles. The strong engagement in the Pacific region causes four treaties at the Washington disarmament conference (November 1921 – February 1922): 1. Definition of the fleet amount of five powers: USA and UK – 525,000 t, Japan 315,000 t, France and Italy 175,000 t. 2. The four powers treaty (USA, UK, Japan and France) secures the possessions in Pacific. 3.The nine powers treaty secures the Chinese independence and the “open door” policy in China. 4. Japan gives Shandong and Kiaozhou to China and pulls out the troops from Siberia.1924 Dawes plan for regulation of the reparation payments. In June-July 1927 successless three powers conference (USA, UK, Japan) about the sea disarmament takes place. In August 1928 the Briand-Kellogg pact is undersigned. 1929 Young plan: the USA are fort he regulation of the reparation problem as condition for the paying of the European debts. In January-February 1930 fleet conference in London between USA, UK, Japan, France, France and Italy, because all powers (besides UK) want to extend the sea disarmament: refuse from the construction of new battle ships till 1936, restriction in the submarine building. USA, UK and Japan unite about the building of war ships. 1932 the US doctrine is announced by foreign minister Stimson: the USA do not accept the change, made by power.

The Roosevelt era (1933-45).

Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882-1945) is a president from 1933 till 1945. He announces the situation of national need and makes different reforms for the overcoming of the economic crisis: New Deal. The measures are planned by the Brains trust of the scholars, which preserves the system of private economy. 1933 the “Hundred days” (9.3-16.6). The first phase of reform includes the closing of banks. Only the healthy, which belong to the Federal Reserve System (75 percent), can be reopened; export and collection prohibition of gold and currency; inflation of dollar (till 50 percent). Laws to help the indebted farmers and householders. Main parts of the New Deal: AAA (Agricultural Adjustment Work); TVA (Tennessy Valley Authority) under leadership of David F.Lilenthal, which included big regional planning; NIRA (Narional Industrial Recovery Act), according to which the maximal working time and minimal loans were established. It was not renewed after it had been declared contradictory to the constitution (1935). Building of the voluntary working service (CCC: Civilian Conservative Corps). 1935 the 2nd phase of the New Deal, which reforms strengthen the positions of workers and farmers and exclude the radical enemies of the New Deal: The unemployment is removed through the buildings from public costs (WPA: Works Progress Organisation, leader: H.L.Hopkins, 1890-1946). The relations and capitalist are ruled by National Labor Relations Act). Different arts of security are established by Social Security Act. Further laws stimulate the house building and secure fair workin conditions.

After the 1st re-election of Roosevelt to President (November 1936) he strifes for reform of the Supreme Court (Judiciary Reorganisation Bill) and the excluding of opposition forces in the own party. That is why and because of the economic recession, coming from August 1937 the Republicans get 80 sits in the house of representatives and seven in Senate (November 1938).

The foreign policy: despite strong resistence of the isolations, which approve the entrance of the USA to international workers’ organization (1934), but resist to the entrance to the International Court (1935), the Roosevelt’s striving are directed for international cooperation. 1934 the diplomatic relations to the USSR are established because of the Japanese expansion in East Asia. The “policy of good neighborship” succeeds the policy of the interventions in Latin America; refuse from the Amarica rights in Cuba, giving over of the protection rights over Haiti. Success of this policy: VIIIth Panamerican conference in Lima: announcement of the solidarity of America (1938). The Philippins get the promise of independence after ten years. 1935 Neutrality Act is accepted: prohibition of selling and exportation of weapons to the countries at war. 1937 a new neutrality law gives possible the export of weapons to the war countries at the base of “Cash and Carry”. Roosevelt sees the existential fight between democracy and dictatorship. 1937 “quarantaine” speech in Chicago (5.10): the neutrality against the “epidemy of the lawlessness” is not possible. From 1938 (Munich treaty) American arms growth. From 1939 the neutrality relations are dismantled to the favor of the UK and its allies.

After the 2nd reelection Roosevelt builds the National Defense Council and proclaimes “four freedoms” (January 1941): freedom of speech and opinion, belief and freedom from poverty and fear. The Lend Lease Act (March 1941) empowers to the President to make war export to the allies also without paying. After the Japanese attack at Pearl Harbor (7.12.1941) the war announcement to Japan (8.12) is made. It is followed by the war announcements of Germany and Italy (11.12). The war forces grow from 2 till 16 mln. (1946). Between 1940 till 1946 about 370 billion dollar are spent for the war (21% percent of the general war costs). The victory of the USA was conditioned with strict planning, leadership and control; coordination of production, consumption and research; extention of the agriculture. In November 1944 Roosevelt is elected to the President for the fourth time. He takes part in different conferentions with allies, among them Cairo conference (22-26.11.1943) with Churchill and Chang Kaishek; Teheran conference (28.11-1.12.1943) and Yalta conference (4.-11.2. 1945) with Churchill and Stalin and dies 12.4.1945.

His vice-president Harry Truman becomes his successor (1945-53). The first atomic bombe is exploded in Las Vegas. At his order Hiroshima and Nagashaki were bombed (6.8 and 9.8.1945) with atomic bombes (Hiroshima: Uran 235, 20 000 TNT) and Nagasaki (Plutonium 239) – together with 152,000 dead and 150,000 wounded. In the war the USA lost 259 thousand people. Having got an atomic monopoly, the USA refused from the cooperation with the USSR and began the politic of the containment of communism. 1946 American tests of atomic bombes at Bikini atoll (Pacific); the Atomic Energy Commission for planing, coordination and financing of atom technics. Baruch plan is proclaimed: destruction of all nuclear weapons and international atom energy controle (refused by the USSR). The Truman doctrin (1947), announced by a President in a message to the congress, promises military and economic help to all countries to preserve their independence, in difference to isolationism and Monroe doctrin. USA foreign minister George C. Marshall (1880-1959) proposes an ERP (European Reconstruction Plan) 1947 as sequence of the Truman doctrine. April 23, 1949 NATO is founded. The economic stabilization plan for Japan is accepted from 1949. After his election Truman proclaims the world-wide responsibility of the USA in his “Point four” program. 1949 the American two steps rocket (V2+Corporal) reaches the height of 400km; a long distance bomber flies around the Earth in 94 hours.

In the inside policy 1947 Taft-Hardley law is accepted against the veto of the President: the trade union compulsion is prohibited (Closed shop), as well the support of politic parties with trade unions; President gets the power to suspend the strike for a time (“cooling time”). Against the resistence of conservative Republicans and Southern Democrats President announces the “Fair Deal” (1949), which has the secure the progress of the New Deal to build an economic-social democracy.

In the whole, after two world wars the USA became a leading country of the world both economically and politically, partly because of the weakening of other countries, which were damaged gravely from the wars, partly because of the efforts of the USA government.

B) Latin America in 1910-1950.

After the revolution of 1911 Mexico goes the social-revolutionary ways: nationalization and socialization, securing of the working rights and the prosperity, agrarian reform, secularization of the education, economic reforms, nationalization of railway and petrol industry; industrialization.

After the world economic crisis with its catastrophic consequencies (lowing of prices for the ores) unrest appears in the population, therefore the dictatorships are built: Cuba (1933-59 Fulgencio Batistá), Dominican Republic (1930-61 Rafael Leonidas Trujillo), Guatemala (1930-44 Jorge Ubico), San Salvador (1932-44 General Maximiliano Hernández Martínez), Honduras (1932-49 General Tiburcio Carías Andino) and Nicaragua (1936-56 Anastasio Somoza). 1936 Panama concludes a treaty with USA: no intruding into the inside affairs of the land to keep the order, no land requisitions. The leasing sum grows from 250,000 to 430,000 dollar.

In Venezuela dictator Juan Vicente Gómez (1908-35) is succeded by Elazar López Contreras (1935-41): constution with socialist features (1936). Columbia: after the domination of the conservatives (till 1930) liberal presidents follow. In Ecuador political mutinies (1931-48) are caused by the world economic crisis. In Peru after the dictatorship Augusto B. Leguías (1913-30) a fight between dictatorship and constitutional order takes place. 1941 frontier struggle between Ecuador and Peru takes place, but the protocol of Rio de Janeiro (1942) gives the main part to Peru.In Bolivia after 1930 change form civil government to military dictatorship takes place. In Chile from 1920 President Arturo Alessandri (1920-25, 1932-38) makes reforms to build a social prosperity with the support of the clergy. In Argentina the old oligarchy is driven back by the Radical party (middle class) from 1916. 1930 Radicals are overthrown by Conservatives and military, which removes the domination of the oligarchy (1943 the league of Obrists, from where Juan Domingo Perón has his origin). In Uruguay through a big coalition of the both strongest parties the dictatorship is revented. In Paraguay there are no stabile governments because of the economic crisis. 1932-35 Chaco war between Bolivia and Paraguay takes place, which takes the main part of the contested part. In Brasil dictator Getulio Vargas (1920-45) prohibits Communists and Fascist integralists and tries to win the workers through the social law giving.

The population of Latin America grows from 43 mln. in 1900 till 132 mill. in 1945; among them 35% of Whites, 35% Mestizes and other mized population, 20% Indians and 10% of Blacks.

1823 Vth conference of Santiago takes place: the 1st treaty is concluded. 1928 VIth congress of Habana: the obligatory for all American states court is created. 1933 VIIth congress of Montevideo with participation of the USA takes place. 1936 Interamerican peace conference of Buenos Aires takes place: peace pact between 21 American states is concluded. The foundations of hemisphere defense is extended at the VIIIth congress of Lima 1938. 1939 conference of Panama takes place: prohibition of war action in 300 sea miles broad neutral zone around the continent with exception of Canada. The 1942 foreign ministers’ conference of Rio de Janeiro recommends the entrance into the war against the axis powers (besides Argentinia 1943 and Chile 1944). In and after the WWI the direc interventionist policy of the USA (for all in Central America: Nicaragua, Haiti, Dominican Republic, Cuba, Pnama) is given over by Roosevelt and succeded by the “policy of the good neignborship”, but the Latin American countries react nervously to the investition of the US-owned capital (“dollar imperialism”). The Latin American countries undergone big changes in the social (because of the increase of population, inside migrations, racial composition of the population and industrioalisation with growth of cities), economic (mercantilism of the colonial time, traditional monoculture, lack odf capital for industrialization, analphalbetism, backwardness of the agriculture and prevention of the radical agrarian reforms), in the political structure reasons for the crisis of democracy are the strong economic falls, the building of democratic-revolutionary mass parties (Raul Haya de La Torre: “Autononous Latin American movements without foreign influence”), intrusion of military into the politics of states and the presidential democracy (example: USA), which oft cause the preparation of the dictatorship.

As te expression of Panamerican policy the foundation of the Organisation of American States is proclaimed in the Chapultepec acts (1945), decreed at the Panamerican conference of Petropolis (Rio pact) 1947, undersigned at the Bogotá conference 1948: help obligation in the case of aggressions; pecaful reconciliation of conflicts between OAS members or sanctions. Organs are inter-American conference, foreign ministers´conference for consultation; defence council.

In the whole, Latin America is ruled by the backward dictators, supported by the USA. In the world wars they are mostly neutral. Despite it, attempts of the social reforms are made.

Questions:

1. Describe the situation of Canada in this period.
2. What were the main features of the USA inside and foreign policy in this period?
3. Describe the Latin America in this period.

42. Western Europe in 1910-1950.

A) Culture in 1910-1950.

In Arctis 1921-1924 Rasmussen’s Thule expedition from Greenland to the Bering Strait. 1926 flies from Spitzbergen to the pole and back in sixteen hours. 1926 Nobile, Amundsen and Ellisworth from Spitzbergen over the North Pole to Alaska. 1928 two flights of Nobile with the dirigeable ‘Italia’ to the Pole. Greenland is explored by de Ruervain (1912), Koch und Wegener (1913), Wegener (1929-31), Gronau und Hovgaard und Wehren (1931). In Antarctis 1911-12 Second German South Pole under Filchner takes place. 1911-1914 Mawson explores the Wilkes Land. 1915 Schackleton tries to cross Antarctis in vain. 1928-30 Byrd’s exploration flights; he flies over the South Pole 1929. 1933-36 Wilkins and Ellsworth try to cross the continent in vain. 1938-39 German ‘Schwabenland’ expedition is made.

In physics 1925 Heisenberg, Born, Jordan develop quants mechanics. 1926 Schrödinger –wave mechanics. 1928 Geiger and Müller invent counter of the radiation. 1932 Anderson discovers positrons, Chadwick – neutrons, Pauly ´- neutrino. Cyclothrone is invented by Lawrence. 1934 artificial radioactivity is discovered by Joliot-Curie. 1938 Hahn and Strassmann make an artificial splitting of atomic core. After the war begin physics (like Albert Einstein, 1879-1955) ask President Roosevelt to build an atomic bombe. 1942 Fermi opens the first nuclear reactor in Chicago. From 1943 more than 150,000 scientists and technicians work at the American nuclear bombe project under the leadership of Robert Oppenheimer (1904-67). In WWII the rocket technics are developed with the help of new weapons. The far rockets, built in Peenemünde 1944, are used as V1 and V2. With the German help (Wernher von Brown) USA develop the interconental rockets (ICBM) and long distance bombers, whic can reach every point of the Earth. The same is developed by the USSR.

In biology 1911 the ‘vitamine’ against beri-beri is invented by Funk and Teruuchi. 1912 the human genetics is founded by Lenz. 1914 the behavior exploration is founded by Watson. 1919 chromosome card is made by Morgan. 1921 teaching about human heredity and hygiene of races is founded by Baur, Fischer and Lenz. 1921 intelligence experiments with human apes are made by Köhler. 1927 foundation of the radiation genetics. 1928 the gene theory is discovered by Morgan.

In chemistry the carbone axid assimilation is discovered by Warburg. 1922 methylalcohol is made from hydrogene by Mittasch. 1925 marcomolecular chemistry is founded by Staudinger. 1930 artificial materials on the acetylen basis are made by Reppe. 1932 heavy hydrogene is discovered by Libey, Brickwedde and Murphy. 1934 “Vitamine C” is synthesed by Reichstein. 1936 buna cauchuc is made by Konrad. 1938 perlon is made by Schlack, nylon – by Carothers. 1932 contact insect poison DDT is made by Müller.

In medicine blood groupes are discovered by Moss 1910. 1917 sexual pathology is investigated by Hirschfeld. 1921 insulin is made by Mackad, Benting and Best. 1928 penicillin is made by Fleming. 1929 heart catheter is made by Forsmann. 1930 protection injection against yellow fever is made Theiler. 1932 sulphonamide is made by Domagk. 1935 corticosteron is made by Kendall and Reichstein. 1939 artificial heart is made by Gibbons. 1940 rhesus factor is discovered by Landsteiner and Wiegner.

In traffic technics propeller turbine is made by Kaplan 1910. 1915 full-metal aircraft is made by Junkers. 1918 light avion is made by Klemen. 1922 three-wings avion is made by La Cierva. 1930 ray motor is made by Schmidt.

In radio technics the tube sender is made by Meissner 1913. 1916 directed short waves are discovered by Marconi. 1925 TV probes are made by the USA, the UK and Germany. 1927 overseas telephone connection is made 1935 ultra-short waves sender is made by Witzleben.

Films and sound technics: 1919 sound film is made by Vogt, Engl, Masolle. 1928 tape recorder is made by Pfleumer. 1929 television and TV film is made by Karlvus and Telefunken, 1932 - by Witzleben.

B) European countries in 1910-1950.

1. Pyrenaean countries in 1910-1950.

Portugal: 1910 republic is proclaimed. The first anti-clerical MP Braga (1843-1924) cannot remove the anarchy. After the abolition of monarchy (1910) the firm government change cannot be built because of the radical bringing into the life of the democratic parliamentary system. Between 1911 and 1926 eight presidents and 44 governments are in office, twenty revolts and coups d’etat. 1926 military revolt of General Gomes da Costa (May): “National revolution” without clear program. Parliament is dissolved and constitution is out of power. 1928 General Carmona is elected to the state president. Prof. Antonio de Oliveira Salazar (1889-1970) becomes a finance minister of the new government. Salazar brings the destroyed finances in the order with draconic measures, but without the foreign help. 1932 Salazar becomes a prime minister. 1933 the new constitution is approved in a referendum. The new state (Estado Novo) is a layer state after the Fascist example. In the WWII Portugal remains neutral, keeping both the friendly relations to the UK and close union to Spain (“Iberian bloc”). In friendship with Spain Salazar rules almost absolutely.

Spain: Till 1931 Alphons XIII rules. Under Canalejas (1910-1912) liberal culture policy iss made, but no social and economic reforms. Big emigration to America takes place. Critical self-identification in the literature in the literature is made by Unamuno (1864-1936), Martinez Ruiz, later Ortega y Gasset (1883-1955) etc. In the WWI Spain has an economic ascent because of its neutrality. Despite it, a continuating state crisis begins. Their grounds are: weakness of the constitutional monarchy, rapid change of the governments (1917-23: thirteen cabinets), autonomy movements in Catalonia (Barcelona), tensions between a conservative, feudal-minded upper layer (big land owners, supported by church and army) and and radicalized workers. Revolt of the Rifcabyls under Abd el Krim (1880-1962) takes place in Morocco.

1923 military coup of General capitan of Barcelona, Miguel Primo de Rivera (1870-1930), who makes a military directorium (eight generals, one administration) with consent of king Alphons XIII, which suspends a constitution of 1876 and appoints apolitical ministers. 1925 change of the military government into a civil cabinet under prime minister Primo de Rivera: extended law-giving activity, ordering of administration (liquidation of officials), attempt of the agrarian regorm (1929), social reformation policy through open building plans (streets, railways, irrigation works) and after the treaty with France (1925) the liquidation of the Morocco war (1926). The annexion of Tanger, which is neutralized (Tanger treaty of 1924), is not successful. From the dictatorship intellectuals, nobility, business world and officers are distanced. 1930 Primo de Rivera leaves his office and dies in Paris exile (16.3.1930).

1931 Community elections: victory of the Republicans: Alphons XIII leaves the country, but does not refuse from the throne rights. The Second Republic, supported by liberal bourgeoisie and the socialist workers (Catalonia, land of Basks, Asturia), accepts a liberal progressive constitution after the elections to the constituante national assembly (December 1931): the republic becomes a representative democracy; separation of state and church; unified state, but regional autonomy for Catalonia (1831) and the land of Basks (1936). The coalition of republican parties is endangered by the radical Socialists under Francisco Largo Caballero (1869-1940), the “Spanish Lenin”, the Anarcho-Syndicalists and (because of the radical measures against the church: 1933 anti-church law: civile marriage, nationalization of the church possession) – by the collection of all Conservative forces against the republic (Confederaciόn Española de Derechas Autόnomas = CEDA, founded 1932 by Gil Robles). 1933 victory of the right. Till 1936 cabinet crises and heavy unrests take place oft, which cause the dissolution of parliament.

1936 The People’s Front (Republicans, Socialists, Communists, Syndicalists) wins. Manuel Azaña (1880-1940) becomes a President. The situation is close to the Civil War. After the murder of the Monarchist deputy Calvo Sotelo (13.7) the Spanish Civil War (1936-39) begins. 1936 July: military revolt of the Generals Jonjurjo, Goded, Francisco Franco (1892-1975), Mola, Queipo de Llano, who are supported by Monarchists, Catholics and the founded 1933 by José Antonio Primo de Rivera (1903-36), the son of dictator, Fascist falangas. The insurgents are supported militarily by Germany (“Legion Condor”), Italy and Portugal. The republican government (1936, September: People’s front government of Largo Caballeros, 1937, May: cabinet of Juan Negrin) gets help from France, the USSR and the international volontiers’ brigades (60,000 men). 1936, July: appointment of supreme military commando office (Junta de Defensa Nacional), which elects General Franco to the head of government of the Spanish state and to the commander-in-chief of the troops (1936, September). 1937 uniting of the Falanga Española and the traditionalists to the Falanga Española Tradicionalista under the “Caudillo” Franco. The Franco’s government is recognized by Germany and Italy (1936), then by France, the UK and the USA (1939). Despite the entrance to the Anticomintern pact (1939, April), Spain remains neutral in the WWII. The Franco regime is isolated; 1947 people’s referendum for the monarchy.

In the whole, Pyrenaean countries – Spain and Portugal – are ruled in this time by the dictatorial Fascist regimes, but remain neutral in the WWII.

2.British isles in 1910-1950.

a) Ireland in 1910-1950.

The Conservative, the Protestant Ulster, the upper house and the army are against the Home Rule law of 1912. Only the begin of the WWI prevents the civil war. 1916 Easter revolt of the Sinn Féin movement, which is defeated after the bloody fights in Dublin, proclamation of a republic and execution of leaders, among them Roger Cassement (1864-1916). 1918 parliament elections. The Sinn Féin wins 73 from 106 Irish sits. 1919 assembly of Sinn Féin participants as Irish parliament (Dail Eirean) in Dublin. Building of a secret government under Eamonn de Valera. 1919-20/21: Culmination of the small war between the Irish nationalists (Sinn Féin and Irish Republican Army, IRA) under Michael Collins (1890-1922) and the Briti troops (“Black and Tans”) is the “bloody Sunday” (21.11.1920) in Dublin. 1920 Government of Ireland Act: partition of Ireland in North Ireland (Ulster) and South Ireland with own parliaments. The law is not accepted by South Ireland. 1921 cease of fire. Against the wish of de Valera, Arthur Griffith (1872-1922) and Collins undersign a treaty with the UK: Ireland (with exception of Ulster) as Irish Free State gets a dominion-like status with independent government (Dail); the Dail deputies swear an oath to the king; refuse from Ulster. The radical wing of the Sinn Féin under de Valera splits; his aim is independence for all Ireland. 1922 ratification of the treaty through the majority of the Dail and approvement of the constitution (two chambers’ system), which comes into power after the proclamation of the Irish Free State (6.12.1922). Griffith becomes head of the Executive Council, after his death – W.T.Cosgrave. Civil War between between radicals and moderated, begun in April 1922, is finished in April 1923. Reconstruction of the country under Cosgrave, who pleads for peace with England.

De Valera is a prime minister of 1932 till 1945. The treaty of 1921 is made vain with help of the Westminster status. The oath of loyality to the crown is liquidated (1933), annual payings to the UK are stopped. Building of radical organizations (Fascist “Blue shirts”, National guard), which are opponents of de Valera. 1932-1935 customs war, which ends in British-Irish trade war 1936. 1937 the “sovereign, independent, democratic state” Eire under President Douglas Hyde (1938-45). 1938 treaty with the UK: regulation of financial and economic questions, refuse from the right for “treaty haven”. Despite it, after the election victory of de Valera (June) the country is unreconciled (existence of North Irland and refuse to accept the full independence as republic). Therefore neutrality during the WWII. After the war Ireland quits the British Commonwealth officially; the Ireland Bill secures the political status of North Ireland. 1949 Republic Eire is proclaimed.

In the whole, Ireland fights for the independence and becomes fully independent in this time.

b) Britain in 1910-1950.

George V rules from 1910-36. 1911 Parliament Act: the upper house loses its veto right in finance questions. The inside crisis continues: suffragettes under Emmeline Pankhurst (1858-1928) demonstrate for women emancipation and women election right. Railway, haven and mines workes’ strikes disturb economy and inside order. 2-5.11.1914 British, French and Russian war declaration to the Ottomane Empire follows. In the treaty of London (September 1914) the UK, France and Russia make obligation do not to conclude the separate peace. 1915 the UK and France make sure the future possession of the Constantinople and the sea straits to Russia. 1915: conference of Shantilly prescribes the corresponding attacks and evacuation of Dardanelles. The UK strives for possession of the most part of the German Africa. In the war the UK lost 947,000 human lives. 1918 election rights for men from 21, from women from 30 years is introduced; “Khaki (Coupon) elections” (December 1918) take place; the coalition of the Liberals under Lloyd George and the Conservatives under Andrew Bonar Law is a winner. 1919-22 strike wave of the miners; railway, haven and transport workers demand bigger loans; moderate position of the trade union leaders Smillie, Hodges, Thomas and Ernest Bevin (1881-1951), which unite 32 trade unions to the Trade union of transport workers (1922), the biggest trade union of the world, as well the social-political measures of the government (1919 Addison Act, 1920 law about insurance of unemployed) end the strike. The war measures of economy and control in the ministries are abolished (“Geddes axe”). Crisis of the liberal economic policy (high unemployment); the Conservatives plead for a protective tax policy, the Labor party for a moderated socialization program. In the foreign policy there are defeats: 1921 treatywith Ireland is concluded; 1922 conference of Cannes does not remove the British-French differences in the Near East. At the Washington conference (1921/22) the UK loses its rank as world power and must refuse from the supremacy upon the sea. 1922 the protectorate over Egypt is lost, India revolts. In October 1922 the assembly of Conservatives in Carlton Club takes place. With 187 voices of the group around Bonar Law, Stanley Baldwin (1867-1947) and Lord Curzon (1859-1925) against 87 voices of the group of government supporters around Austen Chamberlain (1863-1937) and Lord Birkenhead (1872-1930) the leaving out from he coalition is decided.

1922-1929 the Conservatives rule. 1922 a Conservative cabinet under Bonar Law is built, which is approved in the November elections (loses of the Liberals and wins of the Labour Party, which becomes the strongest oppositional party (His Majesty’s Opposition). After Bonar Law retired (because of illness) Stanley Baldwin becomes a Prime Minister 1923. The Conservative party is united. The parliament is dissolved, because Baldwin demands a full power for the introduction of protective customs tariff as measure against the unemployment. In December the Conservatives win the new elections. They send 258, the Labor Party 191 and the Liberals 158 deputies into the lower house. Despite it, the 1st Labor cabinet under James Ramsay MacDonald (1866-1937), which is supported by the Liberals; therefore nothing new in the inside policy. At the London conference MacDonald helps to rule the reparations question and to the end of the Ruhr conflict.In February 1924 the USSR is recognized de jure. The negations about trade treaty follow, but after the “Campbell affair” (the liberation of the imprisoned writer of “The Worker’s Weekly”) and the publication of “Zinovyev letter” in October 1924 (alleged connection between Comintern and underground movements in the UK) they are broken. After the mistrust votum the parliament is dissolved. In October 1924 the Conservatives win again. 1924-29 the 2nd Conservative cabinet of Baldwin rules. It can stabilize pound 1925. 1926 a miners’ strike, supported with a general strike of the trade unions, is stopped after seven months. The freedom of the trade unions is restricted with the trade unions’ law (1927). 1926 treaty with Iraq; the independence of the state is recognized. The conflict with France around oil region is ended in the treaty of Mosul. 1927 the diplomatic relations with the USSR are broken (grounds: support of the miners’ strike with the Russian trade union movement and discovery of a propaganda and spy center because of the house investigation in the rooms of the British-Soviet trade society “Arcos”). 1928 treaty with China: the Nanjing government is recognized. In the same year the election rights for women from 21 years old are introduced.

Economic crisis and race of arms (1929-35)

Descent of the conjucture and growing unemployment cause the victory of the Labor Party in the elections of 1929 (287 deputies against 216 Conservative and 59 Liberal), with whose support the 2nd cabinet of MacDonald (1929-31) is built. The relations to the USSR are restored because of the economic grounds: the British-Soviet trade lays behind the German-Soviet one, American oil firmas make concurrence at the European market. After the understanding with the USA in the fleet question (“cruiser struggle”) fleet conference in London takes place (1930). The sequences of the world economic crisis, rumors about the dissipation of the state finances (May report), the burdening of budget with the support for unemployed (“Dole”), but for all because of the unemployment (December 1930: 2,5 mln.) lead to the cabinet crisis. 1931 the government is retired and a “National cabinet” of MacDonald is built, which is supported by Conservatives and Liberals. The majority of Labor under Arthur Henderson (1863-1935) and George Lansbury (1859-1940) goes in opposition. The parliament approves an emergency budget with spare measures and tax growth). The gold currency is liquidated. Because of the inflation of the pound the concurrence facility of the English wares at the world market improves. The October elections of 1931 confirm the policy of the “National government”: 471 Conservative and 65 Liberal against 46 Labour deputies. 1931-35 coalition cabinet of MacDonald. It is supported by Conservative, Liberal and 13 “National” Labor deputies. The power is by the Conservatives under Stanley Baldwin and Neville Chamberlan (1869-1940). The gove rnment refuses from the plan crisis fight and the traditional free trade policy. The Westminster statute approves the “Balfour formula” of the dominions. 1932 the imperial conference in Ottawa takes place (securing of the preference customs in trade communication between the UK and the countries of the Commonwealth). Splitting of the Liberals, but the Liberal foreign minister Sir John Simon (1873-1954) remains in the cabinet.

The policy of “appeasement” (1935-39).

The “National government” of Baldwin (1935-37) persecutes a policy of the “appeasement”. He tries to prevent the war through the negotiations. As result, 1935 the German-British fleet treaty is concluded. Pressed with the public opinion, the government changes its position against Italy and supports the economic sanctions, decreed by the League of Nations. Then it wins elections (October 1935). Foreign minister Hoarst, who supports the Laval’s plan to divide Abessinia, is fired. Under foreign minister Anthony Eden the policy of the “collective security” is ceased. Return to “appeasement” policy, therefore the UK abstains at the Rhine occupation 1936. The British-Italian agreement about the keeping of status quo in the Mediterranean (“Gentlemen’s Agreement”, 1937) is also a sequence of the appeasement policy.

1936 George V dies. Eduard VIII must abdicate because of the resistence of the UK government and dominions against his marriage with the American W.W. Simpson.

1936-52 George VI rules. After the coronation Baldwin retires.

1937-40 cabinet of Neville Chamberlain. The appeasement policy is continued. Foreign minister Eden retires because of the agreement with Italy. Lord Halifax (1881-1959) becomes his successor. April 1938 British-Italian agreement is concluded: the Italian domination in Abessinia is recognized. The Italian volonteers leave Spain after the end of war. September 1938 Munich agreement is concluded. After the German-British declaration and the occupation of the “remnants of Czeck” by Hitler the appeasement policy is given over. 1939 the general military obligation is introduced. The aggressive NS foreign policy is met with the guarancy declarations, but a British-French-Soviet help treaty (August 1939) does not work because of the German-Russian closement.

1940 Winston Churchill (1874-1965) builds a coalition cabinet. Chamberlain remains in the government as Lord President. In the war the UK lost 326,000 people. It spent 20% of the general costs of the war countries.

Despite it belongs to the victors, the UK loses its position as the great power: debts (14 bill. US dollar), capital loses, money inflation. 1945-51 Labor government under Clement Attlee (1883-1967) is built. In the foreign policy (foreign minister Bevin) close connection with the USA in the Germany and Union policy; treaty about bases 1948, reservation in the European policy. Austerity policy (finance minister Stafford Cripps, 1889-1952) with spare measures for the economic recover: rationings till 1950, import restrictions, the USA credits (capital creation) for the export improvement and debt liquidation. 1947 restriction program and 1949 inflation of pound (from 4 till 2,8 US dollar). Prosperity policy: the Bank of England (1945), air flight, coal mines (1947), transport and energy works, iron and steel industry (1951, reprivatized 1953) are nationalized; social insurances (1946) is extended to the obligation insurances (1948, after the Beveridge plan 1942), among them for state healthcare, family and child help; heightening of the low incomes. The Commonwealth (named so by Lionel Curtis) is rebuilt to the union of souverain partners from 1947 in India, South-East Asia, Africa. 1948 the Palestina mandate is given over. Ireland leaves the British Union officially. The Ireland Bill makes sure the political status of North Ireland.

In the whole, in this period the UK gradually loses its positions in the world both economically and politically, despite it is a victor in both world wars.

3. France in 1910-1950.

5th period: 1910-1920.

Under Prime Minister Caillaux (1911/12) German-French Morocco treaty is concluded, but anti-German nationalism (Barrès) and splitting of the Socialists into Ministerielle (Briand) and Unity Party (SFIO) favor the conservative Great Ministry (1912) of Raymond Poincaré of Raymond Poincaré (1860-1934), state president 1913-1920. Clemenceau supports the revanche policy of the “be prepared for the war”, but the pacifist Jaurès pleads for a German-French understanding. 1913 army is strengthened through introduction of the three years service plight (cabinet of Barthou), fought by Socialists. 1914 SFIO wins elections; after the war begin (3.8.1914 Germany declares war to France; 11.8. France declares war to Austria-Hungary) Prime Minister Viviani and Poincaré try to build an “Union Sacrée” of all parties.Through the support of Belgium and France 104 allied divisions stay against 80 German. After the march of five French armies under General Joffre and the British expedition corps under Field Marshall French at Le Cateau the French offensive begins. August 1914: the battle at Mulhouse, the French attack is unsuccessful. August 1914: battle in Lotharingia. The French south group is brought back over the frontier. After the march of seven German armies under the leadership of Helmuth von Moltke (1848-1916) In September 1914 five German armies stay between Paris and Verdun. 6-9.9.14 battle at Marne: a French counterattack brings the German attack to the end. Between the 1st and 2nd German army a 40 km big distance appears. Therefore Germans retreat till Aisne. 14.9.1914 General Erich von Falkenhayn (1861-1922) becomes a General Staff chef in Germany. Octobe/November 1914: “race to the sea”: English-French surrounding attempts have no success. At Yser channel and before Ypern the attack stays: the movement war becomes the positionary war. February/March 1915: winter battle in the Champagne: a French breakthrough attempt is unsuccessful. April/May 1915: battle at Ypern (using of poison gas). Small German land wins. Successful attacks of the Entente in the Loretto battle (March-July 1915). September-November 1915: autumn battle in the Champagne: no decision in the battle. In the conference of Chantilly France strives to win back Elsass-Lotharingia. 21.2-21.7.1916 battle at Verdun (“hell of Verdun”). After German initial successes (Toter Mann, height 304, Forts Douamont and Vaux) big losses causes the break of the battle. 24.6.-26.11.1916 battle at the Somme: the British-French breakthrough attempt is not successful. 24.10.-16.12.1916 the fortresses at Verdun are conquered back by the French. Absence of success in both sides cause a change of leadership: August 1916 Hindenburg and Ludendorff stay at the top of the supreme command; November 1916 General Nivelle becomes successor of Joffre as Generalissimus. In February/March 1917 Germans retreat to the prepared “Siegfried position” between Arras and Soissons. A French attack has no success at Arras, a French – at the Aisne and in the Champagne (April/May 1917). In May 1917 General Nivelle is succeded by General Pétain after the mutiny. In Flandria British breakthrough attempts are unsuccessful (May-December 1917). French-Russian secret treaty is concluded to prevent a separate treaty of Russia and Germany: France becomes agreement for an expansion till the “frontiers of the former Duche of Lotharingia”. A neutral state (Rhine republic) has to be built from the German regions at the left Rhine shores. Russia wants “to put its west frontier in full freedom after its will”. The German spring attack at the Western front (March-July 1918) bring some small win of land, but no decisive breakthrough. The allied under Generalissimus Ferdinand Foch (1851-1918) cause the retreat of Germans to the “Siegfried position” (August-September 1918) with their counter-attack (July-August 1918) between Marne and Aisne and through the tank attack of Amiens (8.8.1918, “the black day of the German army”). 11.11.1918 cease of fire. In the war France lost 1,385,000 human lives. 18.1.1919 a peace conference is opened under the leadership of French prime minister Clemenceau in the foreign ministry of Paris without representatives of the defeated powers. French delegation is represented by Clemeceau and Pichon. 28.6.1919 the treaty is undersigned in the mirror hall of the Varsaiiles castle. France gets Elsass-Lotharingia. 1919 the “National bloc” (Clemenceau, Poincaré) wins over the left union under Edouard Herriot (1872-1957).

In the whole, the fifth period was difficult for the Third republic. The WWI caused great damage to France, but after it Elsass-Lotharingia and mandates in Africa and in the Near East were won.

6th period – 1920-30.

1920 Clemenceau lost the president elections; Paul Deschanel becomes a President (February-September 1920). 1920, January- September: cabinet of Millerand. Poland is supported with the equipment and sending of General Weygand in Russian-Polish war. Military convention with Belgium is concluded. 1920-24 Alexander Millerand (1859-1943) is a President. He influences a cabinet of Briand (1921-22), as well as the government of Poincaré (1922-24), which succeeds the more moderated cabinet of Briand because of the “concession policy” and the reparation question. Strong enemity against Poincaré because of the Ruhr occupation, which is made despite the resistence of England. His approvement to the Dawes plan and his financial policy (spare measures to support of the franc) make Poincaré unpopular. This and the fear for too strong president power as well as the change in the culture policy (the liquidation of secular schools) cause the election victory of the left union (1924). Millerand must retire. Gaston Doumergue becomes a President (1924-31). 1924 the military union with Czechoslovakia is concluded. 1924-25 cabinet of Herriot. He recognizes the USSR. The Dawes plan is accepted. 1925 Locarno pact. The attempt of the anti-clerical government of Herriot to break the relations to Vatican is not successful, as well as the use of laicization laws in Elsass and Lotharingia, which were under the concordate. The finance policy causes the fall of government: Herriot is overthrown (April 1925); the following cabinets of Painlevé, Briand, Briand-Caillaux and Herriot also live a short time. Caused with the revolts in Morocco (Abd el Krim) and in Lebanon (Druses), a serious domestic policy crisis begins (fights for power of the parties and unions, for all of the left, the Catholics and the “Action française”. 1926 military union with Rumania is concluded. 1926-29 Prime minister Poincaré builds a government of the “Union nationale” (foreign minister Briand), later different coalition cabinets. The finance crisis is overcome (equalization of the budget, stabilization of the franc). 1927 autonomy strivings in Elsass and in Lotharingia inside the French republic. The Elsass-Lotharingia home union demands an own parliament with own budget. Strong actions against autonomists. After the 1928 chamber elections crowning of the sanation with the currcency law (inflation of the franc), but thre radical ministers leave the cabinet. After the retreat of Poincaré (July 1929) because of the illness short cabinets follow. Aristide Briand remains foreign minister or Prime Minister. His policy of the German-French coming near, begun in Locarno, interpreted in the talks of Thoiry (September 1926) and Lugano (August 1928) with Stresemann is unsuccessful because of the domestic political situation of both lands. The animosity of both countries against each other cannot be removed also after the French approval of the evacuation of the Rhine land (1929). The French begin the building of the Maginot line. Briands’ idea to found the “United States of Europe” is not recognized. 1930 the French troops leave the Rhine land.

In the whole, France becomes a hegemonial position in Europe, which is supported by East European and some other countries (Belgium, Danemark). But there is a lot of problems both in domestic and in foreign policy. The inside fights for power are caused with the proportional electional system. The regions, devastated with the war, must be restored (costs: over 100 billion francs). Because of the high war debts to the USA and the UK (5 bill. Dollar) an inflation of the franc comes, which is strengthened with the indebtment of the population (end of 1925: 300 bill. francs). One hopes for the German reparation payments (“L’Allemagne paiera tout”), but they are absent in the expected size. The middle class grows poor because of the lose of movable property, caused with the war, destruction of currency, tax burden. Strong decrease of population and favoring of the immigration (1931: 3 mill.), as well as strong escape from the countryside accelerate the social overdistribution of layers. In the foreign policy the conclusion of guarancy treaties with the UK and the USA does not take place. Tensions with the UK because of the Rhine policy and the reparations.

7th period -1930-1940.

1931 the economic crisis begins. The plan of the German-Austrian customs union sharpens the French mistrust against Germany as well as feeds the right extremism. 1931-32 President Paul Daumer (killed by Russian emigrant in May 1932). In the same year Briand retreats from the office of a foreign minister.

1932-40 President Albert Lebrun (1871-1950). Victory of the left parties and building of the radical majority cabinet of Herriot (June-December 1932), which is overthrown because of the debt payments to the USA. Often change of government (Paul-Boncourt, Daladier, Sarraut, Chautemps) and continued finance crisis take place, because the parliament refuses to give the full power to radical spare measures to the government. Anti-parliamentarian movements grow (so called Leagues (“Fire crossers”; Communists). Because of the Stavisky finance scandal the Leagues sturm the Palais Bourbon 1934: the government of Edouard Daladier (1884-1970) retreats despite the trust vote. February-November 1934 Prime Minister Gaston Doumergue (1863-1937) forms a cabinet of the “National unity”, but his plan of the constitution reform is unsuccessful (strengthening of the executive power, chamber dissolution by Prime Minister without the allowment of the senate). November 1934-May 1935 Pierre-Etinne Flandins (1889-1958) “government of the borough peace” refuses from the constitution reform, but does not receive a full power to overcome the finance crisis. 1932 non-attack pact between France and the USSR is concluded, pact about the mutual aid with the USSR and the colonial agreement with Italy 1935.

June 1935- January 1936 cabinet of Pierre Laval (1883-1945 executed). Against the proposition of Reynauld to inflate the franc Laval makes a deflation policy (the officials’ salary is shortened, as well as wages and house payments). Despite it, no vivification of economy and no equalization of the budget. In Abessinia conflict the position of Laval is double: France takes place in the sanctions of the League of nations, but proposes to mediate (agreement of Hoare-Laval). Exit of the radical ministers from the cabinet and building of the cabinet of Prime Minister Albert Sarraut June-July 1936 (1872-1962). The Communist leader Maurice Thorez (1900-1964) proposes the building of the “People’s front” from the Socialist Republican Union (founded 1935), the Communists and the Socialists to overcome the Fascist danger; 1936 the “People’s front” wins at the chamber elections. 1936-37 People’s front cabinet under Léon Blum (1862-1950). The Communist party organizes strikes and occupations of factories. Blum realizes the Malignar treaties: 40 hours week, payed vacation, collective treaties, improvements of loans (15 perecent or more), rcognizing of the trade union right, nationalization of the Bank of France and the military factories. The leagues are dissolved, but continue their Fascist activity in other (“masque”) organizations. The inflation of the franc does not bring the vivification of economy and does not remove the unemployment. 1937 the senate refuses to give to Blum the full power to overcome the finance crisis. The cabinet retreats. Under the next People’s front government governments (Chautemps, 1937-38) and Blum (March-April 1938) gradual dissolution of the People’s front takes place. 1938-40 cabinet of Daladier. Overcoming of the domestic crisis through emergemcy orders, weakening of the social political laws, full power law to restore the economy. Because of the break with the People’s front general strike (November 1938) takes place, but it is broken without success. In the last peace monthes a family and an appartement building law is accepted. The industry is moved to the province. 1939 general mobilization and war declaration to Germany (2 or 3.9). 1940 Daladier is overthrown (21.3). Paul Reynauld (1878-1966) becomes a Prime Minister. After Germans march into France, marshal Pétain is accepted in the government. Attempts to get help from the USA remain without success. After the breaking of the “Weygand line” Paris is occupied without fight (14.6). The government retreats (16.6). 22.6.1940 cease of fire in Compiègne. France is divided into an occupied and an unoccupied region (“Vichy” government under Pétain). The French army is imprisoned, but fleet is not delivered. 3.7.1940 the French fleet at Oran is destroyed by the Enlishmen. 10.7.1940 Pétain becomes a “Chef of state”. 24.10.1940 Hitler meets with Pétain in Montoire: Hitler demands the war entrance of France, but Pétain declines.

In the whole, the 7th period of the 3rd republic (2nd macroperiod) was difficult for France. Economic problems, political instability, growing of Fascism cause the lose of national independence in 1940.

WWII: 1940 a “provisory National Committee of the free Frenchmen” (18.6) under General Charles de Gaulle (1890-1970) is built in London, later (30.7.1943) – a cabinet. Underground movements (Résistance, Maquis) in the occupied north (“Libération-Nord”, “Organisation civile et militaire”) and in the occupied south (“Combat”, “Libération-Sud”), in both zones the ‘Front national”, influenced by the Communists, are created. Building of the positions for flee and news service and an underground press. 1941 a central information and action bureau in London is built as connection between Gaullists and resistence movements, which troops are collected in underground as “Forces françaises de l’Intérieur” under General Pierre Koenig (1944). 6.6.1944 the western allies invade North France (“Overlord”) between Cherbourg and Caen under General Eisenhower. They get the peninsula Cotentin (14.6), take Cherbourg (30.6), Caen (9.7) and St. Lô (18.7) and break the German position at Avranches (25.7): the movement war begins. The destruction of the German tank unions in the “hell of Falaise” (16.8) makes free the way to Paris, where the revolt of the resistence movement begins. After the revolt of the resistence troops (1944) the German occupation army in Paris surrenders (19.8). De Gaulle enters the capital (25.8). The allies reach the German frontier between Trier and Aachen and the south frontier of the Netherlands (September/October). Meanwhile, 15.8.1944 the allied troops land in Southern France (“Dragoon”). The Americans reach the Swiss frontier over Grenoble (23.8). French troops liberate Toulon and Marseille. March to the noth and taking over of Metz, Belfort, Mulhouse and Strasbourg (November); Americans break into the West wall (3.12). After the liberation of Paris Résistance and General Charles de Gaulle build a “government of one mood” (August 1944). Union with the USSR (December) is concluded. France receives a place in the UN Security Council and an occupation zone in Germany and in Austria. 1944/45 persecution and condemnation of collaborators and “Vichy supporters”: death penalty for Pétain, which is changed into the life-long sentence, and Laval. In economy state debt grew for 300 percent from 1939, industry index sank for 20 percent. To liquidate the inflation banknotes are changed, capital is taxed. 1945/46 nationalisation of the Bank of France, the insurances, coal mines, energy sources, state reconstruction program.

3rd macroperiod.

1st period (1945-58).

1945, October: the elections to the National assembly take place: Communists (CP) 25, Socialists (SF) and Democratic People’s Movement (MRP) – 23 percent of voices. January 1946: De Gaulle resigns, indignating about the constitution plans of parties. People’s referendum votes against the first project of constitution. Small MRP majority after the new elections (June); “borough peace” of the parties under Prime Minister Georges Bidault and acception of the 2nd constitution project. Constitution of the Fourth republic: two chamber system (National assembly and council of the republic); executive (Prime Minister and government) are dependent from the investiture of the national assembly; President (elected by both chambers for seven years) is politically not responsible; constitutional committee to control the law norms; French Union between motherland, oversea departments, associated regions (Togo, Kamerun) and states (Tunis, Morocco, Vietnam). 1947-54 State President Vincent Auriol/SF (1884-1966). Under Prime Minister Ramadier /SF the Communist party leaves the government (1947), protesting against the stop of loans and military credits for Indochina. CP (Thorez) and national RPF (Gaullist movement) prevent stabile government majorities of the democratic third force: coalition from SF (Ramadier, 1988-1961; Guy Mollet), MRP (Bidault, Robert Shuman, 1886-1963) and Radicals (RS: René Pleven, Pierre Mendès-France). The economic crisis of 1947/48 (price growing, strikes) is overcome through the US credits, ERP means, investition rule for energy and mine works (Monnet), Eurpean integration (Shuman plan) and franc inflation of 1948. 1950 the military service is prolongated to 18 monthes.

In the whole, after the WWI and II France became weaker (albeit belonged to the victors) and had politically weak 4th republic.

4.German countries in 1910-1950.

a) Germany in 1910-1950.

5th period – 1909-1918.

Theobald von Bethmann Hollweg (1856-1921, imperial chancellor 1909-1917, Prussian domestic minister from 1905) and foreign office (Kiderlen-Wächter) try to find understanding with England (Grey), but is supports France in the 2nd Morocco crisis after the sending of canon boat “Panther” to Agadir 1911. Morocco is left against French giving back of New Kamerun. Cooperation with the UK in the Balkan crises, but Tirpitz makes damage to the equalization talks with Lord Haldane in Berlin 1912, because he makes dependent concessions in the fleet question from a British neutrality declaration.Hollweg understands the problems of imperial policy, but the decisive power and activity to changes lack. 1910 the attempt of reform of Prussian election right is not successful because of the Conservatives. The new constitution for Elsass-Lotharingia (1911), which receives inside autonomy, is too late. In the same year imperial insurance order (RVO) comes: the social protection is extend for the middle class, Healthy equalization beween social and old political structure is not found. 1912 SPD becomes the strongest faction in parliament, center goes left under the leadership of Matthias Erzberger (1875-1921, murdered). 1913 Zabern incident: people’s indignation because of joke over Elsass inhabitant by an officer is suppressed militarily, the intrsion of the parliament is unsuccessful. In the same year army grows for 780,000 people. After the begin of the war the peace of parties is kept. The war goes mostly at the foreign territory. Only in the begin of the war East Prussia is attacked by Russia. After the battle at Gumbinnen (August 1914) and the evacustion of East Prussia by the Germans the Russians are beaten by General-colonel Paul von Beneckendorf und von Hindenburg (1847-1934). General-mayor Erich Ludendorff (1865-1937) is chef of the general staff. 26-30.8.1914 battle at Tannenberg takes place. Surrounding of the Russia Narva army. 6-15.9.1914 battle at the Masurian seas. Russians evacuate East Prussia. The sea war begins. In the North Sea 1914 and 1915 sea battles at Helgoland and on the Doggerbank. 31.5.-1.6.1916 sea battle before the Skagerrrak, which ends undecided because of the retreat of the British fleet. In the following time mines and submarine war. Because of the loses only some actions of the German unities at the Baltic Sea take place. Overseas after the initial successes (sea battle before Coronel, 1914) end of the cruiser war because of the German defeat in the battle at the Falkland islands (8.12.1914) and the lose of cruisers “Karlsruhe”, “Emden” and “Königsberg”. Using of the help cruisers. Submarine war: after the sinking of three British cruisers (September 1914) the UK declares the North Sea (November 1914) and Germany – the waters around England (February 1915) to the war region and submaring war without warning. The German order of the submarine boat trade war (22.2.1915) causes the USA protests after the sinking of “Lusitania” (7.5.1915) and “Arabic” (19.8.1915). Germany promises to lead the submarine war according to the rule of the people’s right. From February 1916 sharpened German submarine war agains weaponed trade ships. 4.5.1916: German note to the USA: the empire will respect the people’s right rules of the cruiser war, if the UK also promises to do it. 12.12.1916 Germany proposes peace to the Entente through the USA, which is rejected (30.12.1916). 29.1.1917 German peace ideas are brought by the embassador in Washington Count Bernstoff. 1.2.1917 Germany declares unlimited submarine war. 9.2.1918 “bread peace” with the Ukraine. 3.3.1918 Brest-Litovsk peace. 7.5.1918 peace of Bukarest with Rumania: Dobruja is given to Bulgaria, oil sources are used by Germany. 14.8.1918 conference in the main quarter of Spa: the Supreme Army Command declares that the continuation of the war has no success. But there is no unity between Austrian Emperor Karl I and his foreign minister Burian and the German leadership about the conditions of the cease of fire. September 1918: Hindenburg and Ludendorff demand a cease of fire after the break of Bulgaria. October 1918: Prince Max of Baden (1867-1929) becomes an imperial chancellor.

3/4 .10.1918. Proposal of the German government to Wilson (on the base of 14 points). The American answer notes (8., 14., 23. 10. 1918) demand the end of the submarine war, evacuation of the occupied regions, democratic representatives. 29.10.1918 mutiny of the German fleet in Wilhelmshaven. Revolution extends, the councils of workers and soldiers are built. 7.11.1918 revolution in Munich. 9.11.1918: revolution in Berlin: Wilhelm II and crown prince abdicate. Republic is proclaimed by thr Social-democrat Philipp Scheidemann (1865-1939), head of SPD Frederick Ebert (1871-1925) becomes head of government. 10.11.1918 Wilhelm II goes into the Dutch exile (with 43 vagons of things). A new government is built: “Council of the people’s deputies (3 majority socialist and 3 USPD – independent social-democrats - members); besides it, “an executive council of the workers’ and soldiers’ councils” is built. 8-11.11.1918: talks about the cease of fire (General Foch from the allied; Matthias Erzberger fom Germany). 11.11.1918 ceae of fire on the base of 14 points: evacuation of the occupied western regions and of the left Rhine shore, abolishment of the peaces of Brest-Litovsk and Bukarest. Giving out of the heavy war material and submarins. Reconstruction works in the occupied regions. In the war Germany lost 1,808,500 people. According to the Versaiiles peace (28.8.19) Germany lost Elsass-Lotharingia, Posen, West Prussia, the Hutschinger Ländchen and the Memel region. Danzig becomes a free city. In Eupen-Malmedy, North Silesia, part of East Prussia and Upper Silesia the votings take place. The Saar region is put under the administration of the League of nations for 15 years, the coal mines are given to France. Germany refuses from its rights abroad and from the colonies. Professional army of 100,000 people is allowed, all fortress 50km to the east of Rhine are destroyed. Debts (reparations) are precized at the Boulogne conference (21.June. 1920): 269 billion gold mark, which have to be paid in 42 year rates (together with the export of things, among them trade ships, coal, machines, railway vagons etc.). Wilhelm II had to be put for trial. As guarancy the region of left Rhine was divided into three zones, which had to be evacuated in 5, 10, 15 years. The Versaiile treaty comes into power 10.1.1920.

In the whole, the 5th period was difficult for Germany. As results of the WWI, the empire ceased to exist, Germany lost some territories and all the colonies. Germany was made responsible for the war. It had to be punished with reparations and other payments and be disarmed.

6th period (1918-1933).

In November 1918 pact between the head of SPD Frederick Ebert and the successor of Ludendorff General Wilhelm Groener (1867-1939) was concluded. Spartacus revolt in Berlin (November 1918- January 1919), organized by CPD, was suppressed, its organizers – Karl Liebknecht (1870-1919) and Rosa Luxemburg (1871-1919)- were murdered. February 1919: the National assembly was opened in Weimar. SPD had the most places (163 from 451, center – 91, DDP (German Democratic party) - 75. Frederick Ebert is elected to the first President (1919-25). Scheidemann becomes a Prime Minister, supported by the “Weimar coalition” of SPD, center and DDP. In July the imperial constitution, made by Hugo Preuss (1860-1925), is accepted (262 voices against 75). 1920 elections to the frst parliament take place. SPD has the most voices (102 from 459). Imperial chancellor Fehrenbach builds government from center, DDP and DVP (German People’s Party). The Kapp’s attempt to take the power is not successful. 1921-22 the next chancellor Josef Wirth (1879-1956) rules with center, SPD and DDP. 1922 begin of the currency crisis. Wirth cannot match with the reparation crisis. 1922-23 Wilhelm Cuno (1876-1923) becomes the next chancellor. The inflation reaches its culmination. 1923 French and Belgian troops enter the Ruhr region; the Memel land is occupoied by Lithuania. Cuno calls for the passive resistence in the Ruhr, but without success. In August-November 1923 “cabinet of the great coalition” under Gustav Stresemann (1878-1929) ends the passive resistence. In September 1923 the emergency situation is proclaimed. Despite it, the right and left extremists make attempts of the coup d’etat. In November 1923 the currency is stabilized. Dollar reached the price of 4,2 billion of paper mark. In the foreign policy the peace treaty with the USA (1921) and the Rapallo treaty (1922) were concluded. In November 1923 the cabinet of Stresemann gets a mistrust votum from the SPD. 1923-24 the center politician Wilhelm Marx (1863-1946) builds a new government (with Stresemann as foreign minister). In May 1924 the second parliament elections take place. SPD has 100 places from 472. The second cabinet of Marx is built. But already in October 1924 the parliament is dissolved because of the Dawes plan laws. In December 1924 the 3rd parliament elections take place. Now SPD has 131 sits from 493. The partyless Hans Luther (1879-1926) becomes a chancellor (1925-26). The coalition consists of the center, BVP (Bavarian People’s Party), DVP, DNVP (German National People’s Party). 28.2.1925 Frederick Ebert dies. Despite many economic and politic problems, the republic was established and preserved in this time.

1925 -34 Monarchist von Hindenburg is a second President (elected 26.6.1925 in the 2nd round of the elections with 14.65 mln. votes, Dr. Marx had 13.75 mln., Communist leader Thälmann – 1.93 mln.) January-May 1926 2nd cabinet of Luther (foreign minister Stresemann). 1925 the Locarno treaties are undersigned. Their content is according to Stresemann: “Keeping of the Rhineland”. 1926 the Cologne zone is evacuated. Stresemann tries to revise the German-Polish frontier and therefore concludes the German-Russian friendship (neutrality pact). Luther retires because of the flag order of the parliament (the trade flag (black-white-red) is allowed besides the state flag (black-red-gold)). May-December 1926 3rd cabinet of Marx. In September Germany enters the League of nations. Scheidemann criticizes the cooperation between German and Red army. 1927-28 4th cabinet of Marx, where the right is dominating. 1927 the military commission of the allies MICUM is dissolved; the disarmament control is stopped. 1928 Briand-Kellogg pact. Government retires because of the school law. May 1928: 5th parliament elections take place. SPD has 153 sits from 491. 1928-30 Hermann Müller SPD (1876-1931) is a chancellor. He builds a “big coalition”. The reparation problems are preliminary decided at the Haag conferences (1929-30): the Young plan is accepted. In November 1929 the 2nd zone of the Rhineland is evacuated, the allied troops leave it till 30.8.1930. In his last speech in the League of nations (9.9.1929) Stresemann supports the Briand’s plan of a political union in Europe. After the begin of economic crisis the finance minister Hilferding (1929) and the president of the imperial bank H.Schacht (1930) retire. In March 1930 the Müller’s government retires because of the question of insurance of unemployed. The unemployment grows: January 1929 there are 2.850 mln. unemployed (compared to 1.862mln in 1928), in a year – already 3,218 mln. 1930-32 the center politician Heinrich Brüning (1885-1970) builds a new government. September 1930: 5th parliament elections: SPD has 143 sits from 577, NSDAP (Nation-Socialist German Workers’ Party) of Adolf Hitler (1889-1945) -107 sits, KPD – 77 sits. Germany denies the “Europe plan” of Briand. 1931 the plan of the German-Austrian customs union is resisted by France. In January 1931 there are already 4.887 mln of unemployed, January 1932 - 6.042 mln.In July 1931 Darmstadt and National bank ceases to pay. 10.4.1932 Hindenburg is re-elected to the President in the second round (Hindenburg – 19.36 mln., Hitler – 13.42, Thälmann – 3.71 mln.). In April NSDAP wins at the land elections in Prussia, Bavaria, Württemberg, Hamburg and Anhalt. 30.5.1932 Brüning retires. Juny-December 1932 “cabinet of the national concentration” of Franz von Papen (1879-1969). Turn to the pure president’s government. 4.6.1932 the parliament is dissolved. June-July 1932: at the Lausanne conference the reparation question is definitely decided. In the 6th parliament elections (July 1932) NSDAP has 230 sits from 608, SPD – 133, KPD - 89, but Hindenburg refuses to approve Hitler as chancellor. The 7th parliament elections take place in November 1932: NSDAP – 196 sits from 584, SPD – 121, KPD – 100. Papen retreats. 1932- 28.1.1933 1st cabinet of General Kurt von Schleicher (1882-1934, murdered). In December 1932 the agreement of five powers in Geneva: the equal military rights of Germany are accepted. Junuary 1933: there are already 6.014 mln of unemployed. January, 22: Hitler meets with Papen and with Oskar, the son of Hindenburg. January, 30: Hitler becomes a chancellor. It is an end of the Weimar republic.

In the whole, in the time of the Hindenburg presidency right tendencies become stronger, the popularity of the right extreme NSDAP grows. Economic crisis and big unemployment are the main causes of the fall of the Weimar republic.

7th period (1933-1945)

This period can be divided in two sub-periods: 1) 1933-1939 and 1939-1945.

1. 1933-1939

30.1.1933 the government of Hitler took oath. After the burning of parliament (27.2.1933) the emergency situation was proclaimed (27.2.1933). 5.3.1933 the elections to the 8th parliament took place. NSDAP had 288 sits from 647, SPD – 120, KPD – 81. With the next laws (23.3.1933 and 7.4.1933) the legislative power was given to the executive, the unacceptable politically and non-Aryan officials were excluded. From May 1933 some parties (DVP, BVP, DStP, DNVP and Center) were liquidated, SPD and KPD were prohibited. With the laws from 31.3.1933, 7.4.1933, 30.1.1934 and 14.2.1934 the autonomy of lands and their parliaments were liquidated; they were now ruled by the appointed imperial governors. 13.3.1933 the “imperial ministry for people’s education and propaganda”, headed by Dr.Joseph Goebbels (1897-1945), was founded. The government tried to remove unemployment through the program “Enterprize imperial highway” (Unternehmen Reichsautobahn). In July 1933 the concordate with Vatican was concluded.The unemployment sank till 4.464 mill. 22.9.1933 the “Imperial culture chamber” was founded. In October after leaving of the disarmament conference and exit from the League of nations Germany became isolated more and more. 1.12.1933 NSDAP became the state party.In Juanuary 1934 unemployment was already 3.773 mill., in July – 2.426 mill. 20.1.1934 “Law for ordering of the national work”, 27.2.1934 “Law for preparing of the organic construction of economy” were accepted. In May 1934 the “confessional council of the german Evangelical Church” rejects the creation of an evangelical “Imperial church”: The ‘Confession church” (“Bekennende kirche”) is constituted from the “Pfarrernotbund”(“Emergency union of priests”), founded by Martin Niemöller.In June-July 1934 the staff chief of the SA Ernst Röhm, who planned to unite the SA with the army, was murdered. Some enemies of regime (Schleicher, Kahr, Edgar Jung) were liquidated. SS becomes the successor of the SA. Political policy (“Gestapo”) is organized. 2.8.1934 Hindenburg died, Hitler became an imperial president.24.10.1934 all “working people” (Schaffende) were united in the ‘German Work’s Front” (DAF). 1934 non-attack pact with Poland was concluded.

In January 1935 after the referendum Saarland was incorporated into Germany. Unemployment grew till 2.974 mln.In March 1935 the general war obligation was reintroduced. In June 1935 German-British fleet agreement was concluded (fleet strength relation 100:35). 26.6.1935 program of armistice and obligatory imperial work service was accepted. In July 1935 unemployment sank till 1.754 mln. Till 1936 all the police is subordinated to Heinrich Himmler (1900-1945). In January 1936 unempolyment grew till 2.520 mln. In March 1936 Locarno treaty was abolished, German marched into the demilitarized Rhineland. It was the end of the Versaiiles order. In July 1936 agreement with Austria with restoration of friendly relations was accepted. Unemployment sank till 1.170 mln. In August 1936 Olympian plays in Berlin took place. In the same month the military service of two years was introduced. In September 1936 at the party congress in Nurnberg the four-year plan to get the economic autarcy is proclaimed. In November 1936 Antikomintern pact with Japan is concluded. Axis Berlin-Rome is proclaimed in October/November 1936. In Januaty 1937 Italy enters the pact (in March 1939 Spain). The unemployment reached 1.853 mln. In July 1937 it sank till 0.563 mln. In November 1937 at the leaders’ conference Hitler discovers his war plans (“Hoßbach protocol”): “conquest of new living space” with power.Despite the concordate, Pius XI expresses his resistence to Hitler’s policy in his encyclica. In January 1938 unemployment grew till 1.052 mln. The war minister von Blomberg (1878-1946) and the commander-in-chief General-colonel von Fritsch (1880-1939) are dismissed because of the intrigues of Himmler and Göring. Supreme command of army is built. Joachim von Ribbentrop (1893-1946) becomes a foreign minister. The president of imperial bank Hjalmar Schacht (1877-1970) is dismissed. “Law about the German imperial bank” is accepted in June 1939. Hitler gets the unlimited inspection right about the finances. The “re-unification” of Austria with empire” (13 March) is approved with people’s referendum in April. In July 1938 unemployment sank till 0.218 mln. After the secret order of Hitler to the army to defeat Czechoslovakia (30.5.1938), the dismissal of the General staff chief Ludwig Beck (1880-1944, suicide), Hitler’s talks with Chamberlain in Berchtesgadenand Bad Godesberg (September) the Munich conference between Hitler, Mussolini, Chamberlain and Daladier takes place. The Sudeten German regions are given to Germany (1-10.10.1938). Through the German-English non-attack declaration (September, 30) and the German-French declaration (December, 6, definite acception of the German-French border) the German expansion had to be stopped. Despite Hitler’s promise, that his last demand is a concession of the Sudeten land. (26.9.1938), 21.10.1938 the Hitler’s secret order to conquer the remnants of Czechia is given. At the end of 1938 the state debt grew till 42 bill. Reichsmark. In January 1939 the unemployment grew till 0.302 mln. After the visit of Czechoslovakian state president Hacha in Berlin (15.3.1939) and the entrance of German troops into the Czechoslovakia (15-16.3.1939) the “Imperial protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia” was established. 21.3.1939 Germany put demands to Poland (among them incorporation of Danzig to Germany and exerritorial connection between East Prussia and the empire’s region. The demands are not accepted. 23.3.1939 unification of Memel land with the German empire takes place. The talks with Poland are broken (26.3). After the English-French guarancy declaration for Poland (31.3) the German-Polish non-attack pact and the German-Brotish fleet agreement (28.4) are abolished. Germany concludes a trade agreement with Rumania. The Balkans and Danube lands are now dependent economically from it (“provision space” of the “Great German empire”). In July 1939 unemployment decreased till 0.038 mln. 22.5.1939 friendship and union pact with Italy (“Steel pact”), the non-attack pacts with Estonia, Latvia, Danemark (31.5-7.6.1939) and the German-Soviet non-attack pact (23.8.1939) with the additional protocol (determination of the mutual interest spheres in the East Europe) are concluded. Poland concludes a union treaty with England (25.8). 1.9.1939 the WWII begins.

In the whole, in the first part of the 7th period Germany becomes a Nazi totalitarian state. All parties were liquidated; all the power was concentrated in the hands of Hitler and his party. Germany broke with the Versaille treaty, grew its army and occupied some neighbor countries. Inside the country all political enemies and Jews were persecuted.

2nd sub-period – 1939-1945.

1.09.1939 Germany attacks Poland. 1940 pact of three powers between Germany, Italy and Japan is concluded. Till 1942 Hungary, Rumania, Slovakia, Danemark, Finnland, Nanjing China, Bulgaria and Croatia enter the pact. 1942 military union between Germany, Italy and Japan is concluded. Till 1941 almost all continental Europe is conquered by Germany. But from 1942 the counter-attack of the allied forces begins. 20.7.1944 the bombe attempt of the Colonel Claus Count Schenk von Stauffenberg to kill Hitler u\in leader’s headquarter “Wolfsschanze” takes place. Revolts in Berlin and Paris begin, but the conjurators are persecuted. About 5,000 people are executed, among them ca.180-200 conjurators of 20 July. 1945 Germany is attacked both from the west and from the east. Left Rhine region is lost in February. The Brits cross the Rhine at Wesel (24.3) and go till Emsland, through Westphaly till Elbe (19.4) and till Holstein and Mecklenburg (2.5). The Americans go from Mainz to Erz mountains and the ddemarcation line Karlsbad-Budweis-Linz. 16.4. The Soviet attack at Oder and Neiße begins. 24.4. Berlin is surrounded. 25.4. American and Soviet troops meet at Torgau an der Elbe. Himmler and Göring try to make contacts with allies and end the war. They are excluded from the party and lose their offices. Great admiral Karl Dönitz is appointed to the President and commander-in-chief, von Goebbels to the chancellor. 30.4.1945 Hitler and other leaders of the pary commite suicide. 4.5. the German forces capitulate in Holland, North-West Germany, Danemark and Norway in headquarters of Montgomery in Lüneburg. 5.5. NSDAP is dissolved, Himmler is dismissed. 7.5. German forces capitulate in Eisenhower’s headquarters in Reims. 8.5. the capitulation in Soviet headquarters in Berlin-Karlshorst before Marchal Zhukov is made. The general capitulation enters into power 9.5.

As result of the war Germany was destroyed and lost 3.1 mln. people (2.5 mln at front and 0.6 mln of the peaceful population). It was occupied by the four foreign forces (UK, USA, France and Soviet Union). .

 Twelve year of Nazi government was a catastrophe for Germany. It was a definitive end of Reich (empire), founded 1871.

In the whole, the 2nd macroperiod in German history (1871-1945) was a period of unified German empire that had many cultural achievements and was a developed industrial country. After the WWI the Weimar republic was proclaimed. Weak Weimar republic was succeded with Nazi government (“3rd  Empire), which brought Germany into the WWII. After it the unified German state was to the end.

3rd macroperiod (1945-2005).

1st period – 1945-1949.

23.5.1945 the government of Dönitz was dismissed and imprisoned. According to the Berlin declaration of four powers, four occupation zones were organized: USA - General Eisenhower (from 1947 General Clay); USSR – Marshal Zhukov (from 1946 General Sokolovsky); UK – Field Marshal Montgomery (from 1947 General Robertson); France – Koenig. The Allied control council is built. The conference of Potsdam (Stalin, Truman, Churchill/Attlee and foreign ministers) edits the Potsdam declaration (July/August). Germany is divided into four occupation zones, two regions under Soviet and Polish administration and special status for Berlin.Berlin was also divided into four occupation sectors. German have to leave Poland, Hungary and Czechoslovakia. In July Saar region is separated. It had an own administration under French protectorate. Industry was put under control, reparations and demontage of industry (till 50 percent of the pre-war situation according to the plan of Control council 1946) . NSDAP was prohibited. In the Nurnberg process (1945/6) allied lawyers condemn 24 main war criminals. NS leaders’ corpus, Gestapo, SD and SS are proclaimed to the criminal organizations. 1945 KPD, SPD, CDU (CSU in Bavaria), FDP (LDPD in the Soviet occupation zone). SPD and KPD are united to the Socialist Unity Party (SED) in the Soviet zone. 1945 work obligation for men and women is introduced. 1946 SED is allowed in all Berlin. In January 1947 the UK-US bizone is organized. I Frankfurt the economic council is organized. In May 1947 the mines are nationalized and the German economic commission is built. 1948 the London conference of six powers is organized.France supports other Western powers. In June 1948 economic reform is made in the Western zones (10 RM: 1DM-West). The Soviet military government answers with the same money change (DM-East) and the Berlin blocade (stop of the traffic and export from the Soviet zone to the West Berlin) . In Juy 1948 Frankfurt documents of the occupation powers to call a legislative are accepted. In September 1948 the Parlamentary council is summoned (65 members, elected by lands) in Bonn. Konrad Adenauer (1876-1967, leader of CDU, former governor of Cologne) is elected to the President. In November 1948 Berlin is splitten, East Berlin has now its own governor. In April 1949, according to the Washington agreement, the military government was succeded by high commissars. In May 23, 1949 the “Bonn main law” was accepted. It was ratified by all lands (except Bavaria). In May 1949 the blocade is over.

Meanwhile, in the Soviet occupation zone SED becomes a leader party. The trade union (FDGB) becomes a control organ for production plans and work norms. In May 1949 the elections to the 3rd People’s congress take part. It approves the constitution project of the People’s council. October 7, 1949 the German Democratic Republic with the capital in East Berlin is proclaimed.

In the whole, the 1st period was difficult for Germany it was occupied, divided into four zones and lost eastern territories. At the end, Germany was divided into two states – FRG and GDR (BRD and DDR), Berlin was splitten in two parts.

b) Austria in 1910-1950.

From 1909 Austria is governed autoritarily with edict right. 1913 the Bohemian land parliament is dissolved. 1914 the imperial council is postponed. 28.6.1914 rthe Austria throne successor Archduke Franz Ferdinand (born 1863), who pleaded for autonomy for Southern Slavs, and his spouse are murdered by the Bosnian student Princip in the order of the secret organization “Black hand” in Saraevo. 23.7. Austria puts an ultimatum to Serbia: the guilty had to be punished with Austrian participation. 25.7 Sebia refuses to do it and makes a part mobilization, the same is made by Austria-Hungary. 28.7. Austria-Hungary declares a war to Serbia. It was a begin of the WWI. 6.8. Austria-Hungary declares a war to Russia. In Galicia the 1st and 4th Austrian-Hungarian armies go till Lublin and over Lemberg, but after the both battles of Lemberg (August/September 1914) they have to stop the fight at Rawa Ruska because of the Russian supremacy (five armies). East Galicia is lost, fights in Karpates passages take place. Later Austrians win at Limanowa. In December 1914-April 1915 winter fight in Karpates take place. Russians, attacking Hungary, are defeated. From 1.7.1915 German-Austrian attack from the Baltic Sea till the San takes place. In the East Galicia after the fight at Tarnopol (September 1915) the attack is over. June-August 1916 the 1st Brusilov attack begins. Russians win lands in Volyn and Galicia, but after the big loses the Russian army is demoralized. The 2nd (September/October) and 3rd (October/December) Brusilov attacks as well as 4th Brusilov and Kerensky attacks have no success. From July 1917 German-Autrian counter-attack begins. Almost all Galicia and the Bukovina is won back. After the Russian revolution Austria-Hungary refuses from Poland, but wishes to conquer Serbia, Montenegro, Rumania. Austria-Hungary (together with Germany and Turkey) concludes peace with the Ukraine (9.2.1918) and a peace of Bukarest (7.5.1918). After the fall of the last Austrian-Hungarian attack at the Piave estuary (June 1918) and the refuse of the peace conference by USA President Wilson (14.9.1918) Austria-Hungary supports the German ceasefire proposition (4.10.1918). 17.10.1918 Emperor Karl I (from 1916) promises a federative state organization to the people of the Danube monarchy. 20.10.1918 Wilson demands to accept the independence wishes of the Austria-Hungary people. After the revolution in Vienna and the opening of a German-Austrian national assembly (21.10.1918) the Danube monarchy is dissolved. 28.10.1918 Czechoslovakia is proclaimed. 29.10.1918 the Yugoslavia people leave Austria-Hungary. 1.11.1918 the Hungarian government under Count Karolyi is built. 10.9.1919 the peace treaty with Austria is concluded in St. Germain-en-Laye is concluded: South Tirol till Brenner is given, as well as Triest, Istria and Dalmatia and regions in Carinthia and Kraina; the independence of Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Poland and Jugoslavia is recognized; the name “Austria-Hungary” and the unification with the German empire are prohibited. The professional army is restricted with 30,000 men. Therefore Austria-Hungary, the successor of the Holy Roman Empire and of the Charlemagne Empire, ceased to exist (despite the Newton’s prophecy it was not in 2060, but in 1918). It lost 1.2 mln. people in the WWI.

1918 the provisory national assembly declares “German Austria” to the republic. After the victory of Social-democrats in the elections to the Constituante (February 1919) K.Seitz (1919-20) is elected to the federal president. His successor is Michael Hainisch (1920-28). Coalition of Social-democrats and Christian-socialist under Karl Renner (1870-1950) rules. 1919 Habsburgs are expelled. 1920 the new constitution has a full power: President is elected with two-chambers parliament. 1920 the bourgeoise coalition government rules. 1920 Christian-socialist win the election. Cabinet of M.Mayr is built (till 1921). Austria enters the League of nations. 1921 Oldenburg is given to Hungary. 1922-1924 university professor prelat Dr. Ignaz Seipel (1876-1932) as chancellor stabilizes finances and economy. 1922 international credits are given, but Austria has to refuse from the union with Germany for 20 years. 1927 the revolt of Socialists takes place (burning of justice palace). 1928-38 Prof. Wilhelm Miklas (1872-1956) is a federal president. According to the constitutional reform (1929) President is elected by the people. 1930 the friendship treaty with Italy is concluded. 1931 project of customs union with Germany is made. The government of Buresch (1931-1932) tries to overcome the economic crisis with a sanation program. September 1931 the coup of the army in Stiria fails. 1932-38 the “Austrofascist” dictatorship” is established. The government of Engelbert Dollfuß (1932-34, killed) initially rules democratically. 1932 the Lausanne agreement is made: credits of the League of nations is prolongated with refuse to unite with Germany till 1952. But already in March 1933 an authoritarian regime is established according to the war law of 1917. After the street fights in Vienna and other towns both National-Socialists, Social-democrats and other patires are prohibited. Only the “Fatherland front”, built 1933, is allowed. But after the National-Socialist coup (25.7.1934) Dollfuss is killed. Italian tropps come to Brenner. Rome protocols (Itali, Hungary, Austria) are concluded. Kurt Schuschnigg (1934-38) is a chancellor. 1936 he makes a treaty with Germany, which is against the Habsburg restauration ate,pts. 12.2.1938 Schuschnigg visits Hitler. Amnesty for National-socialists takes place. Arthur-Seyss-Inquart (1892-1946, executed) is an interior minister. After the German ultimatum (11.3.1938) Schuschnigg retreats. Seyss-Inquarts builds a government, German troops come into Austria. 13.3. 1938 Austria is united with Germany.

After the war (April 1945) a provisory government under Karl Renner is built. Austria is controlled with the occupation powers. In July Vienna is divided in four parts, it is a sit of the the council of allied. After the lection to the national council ÖVP, SPÖ and KPÖ build a coalition under chancellor Leopold Figl (ÖVP) (1902-1965). Karl Renner is President till 1951. 1946 the law of allied forces for the univoicity to refuse the Austrian laws is accepted. 1947 the law about the protection of currency causes Communist Party to leave the government.

In the whole, after the WWI Austria lost the most non-German territories. It was ruled democratically (besides 1932-1938), but was united with Germany. After the war Austria was occupied and has got a democratic government.

5.Italy in 1910-1950.

1911-1914 Liberal Giolitti is a chancellor again. 1911 Tripolis is annexed. Therefore war against Turkey takes place 1911/12. The revolt of the Senussi and the attack into the Aegean Sea (Dodekanes) makes the war difficult. 1912, according to the Lausanne peace, Libya becomes autonome and is given to Italy de facto. The Dodekanes is controversial. 1912 the promise of neutrality to France is given. 1912 the general election right is introduced. 1912 the Socialists are splitten: the “reformists” (Bissolati) are defeated by the “refolutionaries” under Benito Mussolini, who leads the “Avanti” from the same year. He calls workers and peasants to the strikes, especially in the “red week” (June 1914). 1914 Benedictus XV became a Roman Pope (till 1922). At the begin of the WWI Italy declares neutrality (August, 3). In the fight between the neutralists (Giolitti) and the interventionists (d’Annunzio, Mussolini) Prime Minister Salandra represents “sacro egoismo per Italia”. Foreign minister Sonnino makes territorial pretensions to Austria. In the London treaty (April, 26 1915) he gets big concessions from the Entente: Alps frontier till Brenner, Istria, the biggest part of Dalmatia, Libya, Erithrea, parts of Asia Minor. The union of three is abolished at the May 3, 1915. 23.5.1915 war declaration of Italy to Austria-Hungary and 26.8.1916 to Germany. June 1915 – March 1916 Italians make unsuccessful attempts to break through in five Isonzo battles. From May 1916 Austrian counter-attack begins. After initial success it is stopped after the 1st Brusilov attack. In August 1916 6th Isonzo battle. Italians win Görz. The 7th till 9th (September-November 1916) as well the 10th and the 11th Isonzo battles (May-August 1917) are undecided. In June-August 1917 Benedictus XV tries to mediate in the war without success. In October 1917 the central powers break through at Isonzo; Italians retreat till Piave. In the war Italia lost 460,000 people. As result of the war Italy has got South Tirol and Istria from Austria (1919) and Rhodos from Turkey (1920).

After the war the democracy is in crisis. 1919 the first “Fasci di combattimento” (Squadri) under the leadership of Mussolini are built. 1919 Gabriele D’Annunzio attacks Fiume. The governments of Nitti (June 1919- June 1920) and Giolitti (June 1920-June 1921) cannot overcome the economic crisis and inflation. 1920 Socialists strike in Milan and Turin. Fascist fight Socialists with terror. 1920 Rapallo treaty with Jugoslavia is concluded: Fiume becomes a free state. 1921 the Partito Nazionale Fascista (PNF) is founded. In the time of the weak governments of Bonomi (1921-22) and Facta (February-October 1922) Fascists, supported with industry and army, come to the “direct actions”. Quadruumvirat is built: Italo Balbo (1896-1940), Emilio de Bono, Cesare de Vecchi and Michele Bianchi. 28.10.1922 “march to Rome”. The king Victor Emmanuel II (1904-1946) allows Mussolini to build a new cabinet.In November 1922 he gets the unlimited full power from the parliament (till 1924). In the same year Pius XI becomes a Roman Pope (till 1939). 1923 Milizia Volontaria per la Sicurezza Nazionale is built (party militia, without oath to the king). Because of the new election law 1924 Fascists win 65% of sits. After the murder of the Socialist member of parliament Giacomo Matteotti (1885-1926) because of his speech about the “domination of violence” in parliament (30.5) the symbolic exit of the oppositional members of parliament “to the Aventin” (15.6) takes place. 1925/26 measures to to establish a dictatorship are made (imprisonments, exiles, “purge” of officials, dissolvement of the oppositional and prohibition of founding of new parties (November 1926). According to the law of 1925 besides the king as a head of state (Capo dello stato) the “Duce del Fascismo” is a head of government (Capo del governo). The syndical-corporative system (Gerarchia) is built according to the “Carta del Lavoro” (1927). 1928 a new election law is accepted (a list of 400 members, proposed by the different corporations, is made by Gran Consiglio). Other laws about corporations are made in 1930 and 1934. In the same year the first National assembly is made. 1938 the chamber of the “Fasci and corporations”. It consists from the Duce and members of the Great Fascist council 150 members of the national council of the Fascist party, 500 members of the national council and the councils of 22 corporations.

In the international policy Mussolini strives for the domination in the Adria, the hegemony in the Mediterranean space and the extension of Italian colonies in Africa. According to the Lausanne peace (1923) Italy has got a Dodekanes. After the occupation of Korfu (1923), despite the giving back of Fiume (1924), the understanding with Yugoslavia fails. In the Adria pact (1924) Mussolini promises keeping of the status quo. 1926 peace treaties with Rumania (recognizing of the Bessarabia as a part of Rumania) and 1927 with Albania, which becomes dependent, as well as with Hungary (against Yugoslavia to support the Hungarian revisionism) are concluded. 1929 Lateran treaties with the Holy Sea is concluded (recognizing of the “Città del Vaticano” under the souverainity of the Pope against 4 bill. Lire). 1930 peace treaty with Austria is concluded. Through the marriage of Czar Boris III with the princess Giovanna the Bulgarian-Italian relations are improved. 1931 Pius XI discusses the social questions in his encyclical “Quadragesimo anno”. 1934 the “Roman protocols” between Italy, Hungary and Austria are concluded. After the first meeting with Hitler in Venice (1934), the Vienna coup and the concessions of the Laval government Mussolini enters the “Stresa-front” against Germany 1935. In October 1935 Italia attack Abessinia: under the command of Marshal de Bono, later Badoglio two Italian armies invade Abessinia from Somali (Graziani) and Erithrea (de Bono). 1936 Abessinia is annexed. Victor Emmanuel becomes an “emperor of Ethiopia”. The economic and propagandist help of Germany, the common policy in Spanish civile war (1936-39) prepare the “axis Berlin-Rome” (1936). 1937 Italy leaves the League of nations. 1939 Albania is occupied. 1939 Friendship and union pact with Germany. 1939 Pius XII becomes a Roman Pope (till 1958). He preserves neutrality in the WWII.

10.6. 1940 Italy declares war to France and the UK. The Italian attack is stopped in the French Alps front. Italians fight in North Africa and in Balkans. In Abessinia after the conquest of British and French Somali land through Italian troops British counter-attack follows: Italian and British Somali land as well as Erithrea are lost (1941). Addis Abeba is taken (April, 6), Italia capitulates (16.5.1941). After the victory of allies in the North Africa (13.5.1943) they conquer Sicily (10.7.-17.8.1943). After the landing of British troops at Tarent (8th British army) and American forces at Salerno (5th US army) Germans retreat to a line to the north of Naples. After the talks between Hitler and Mussolini at Feltre (19.7.1943) king Victor Emmanuel II becomes a commander-in-chief. Mussolini is dismissed and imprisoned (25.7). A government under Marshal Pietro Badoglio (1871-1956) without Fascist members (26.7) is built. The Fascist party is dissolved (28.7). Despite supposed loyaluty against Germany secret talks with the allied are led in Lissabon from 3.8. After the announcement of firecease (undersigned at 3.9) through Eisenhower (8.9) German counteractions (“Fall Achse”) begin: Rome is occupied. Italian troops are disarmed, dismissed or imprisoned. The Badoglio’s government and the king’s family fly to the allied. Mussolini heads the counter-government, built at 9.9: Repubblica Sociale Italiana (Republic of Saló). 12.9. it is liberated by Germans. 13.10. Badoglio’s Italy declares war to Germany. At the same day Sicily and Corsica (Ajiaccio) are occupied with the French Liberation army. 1944 American troops land behind the German front at Nettuno. Germans resist at Monte Cassino (15.2 monastery is destroyed) till the end of May, but cannot prevent the occupation of Rome (4.6), Pisa (26.7) and Florence (4.8). The Alps front (“Gotenlinie”) is kept till the attack of allied (9.-14.4.1945). April 19, 1945 Americans break through at Bologna. 28.4.1945 capitulation of the German forces in Italy (announced at 2.5). Mussolini is executed by the partisans at the flight to the Switzerland.

At the end of the war liberation committees (resistence groops) and the splitten parties fight for power. Violence acts and “purification laws” against Fascists disqualify big parts of population. Repatriants and internated strengthened general emergency and danger of the civil war. 1945-53 Alcide de Gasperi /DCI (Christian Democrats) (1881-1953) is a prime minister. After the elections to the National assembly and people’s referendum republic is proclamated (June 18, 1946). 1947, February according to the Paris peace treaty reparations, lose of Istria, Trient, colonies and the fleet take place. A currency reform (finance minister Einaudi) diminishes the inflation. 1948 Einaudi (1874-1961) becomes a President. Christia Democrats have an absolute majority in the parliament. Prime minister de Gasperi continues his Europe policy (1949 Italy enters the Council of Europe and the NATO) against strikes and opposition of the people’s bloc (PCI – Communists, led by Togliatti (1893-1964) and Left Socialists (PSI) under Nenni). 1949 South Italian agrarian crisis (revolts in Calabria): partly expropriation of the big landowners. Export (cinema, fashion) and foreign traffic are recovered. In South Tirol the peace treaty confirms Italian Austrian autonomy agreement of 1946, but the Italian autonomy statute of 1948 is not valid for Bozen, but for the region Bozen-Trient. People’s party/SVP protests against the Italianisation.

In the whole, in the WWI Italy fights for the Entente, in the WWII – against the allied. As result it loses all colonies in Africa and some territories, acquired after the WWI. Monarchy is abolished 1946. After 22 years of totalitarian Fascist rule Italy is a democratic state and a part of the Western world.

6.Other countries in 1910-1950.

1918 Island is recognized as the independent state in personal union with Danemark. According to the state constitution of 1920 the foreign policy is led by Danemark, but the land remains neutral for ever (no army). The parliament (Altinget with upper and lower house) appoints the government. Island is taken by the UK 10.5.1940. After the liquidation of personal union with the Danemark Island is a repiblic from 1944.

In Norway 1905-57 Haakon VII rules. Despite friendship to England Norway remains neutral in the WWI, but loses 49,3 (1,24 BRT) of the trade fleet. The influence of the radical elements in the Workers’ party, influenced by the USSR (building of the councils of workers and soldiers), diminishes. Moderated Socialist party is succeded with the Workers’ party (1935-45) under J.Nygaaardsvold. 1920 Spitzbergen is promised to Norway from the League of Nations. 1931 1931 the coast of East Greenland is occupied, but the Haague court decides for Danemark 1933. Norway is occupied with the German forces 9.4-10.6.1940, its battle forces capitulate after the shipping of the allied (3-7.6.1940). King Haakon VII and is government flees to London, an exile government is built (5.5.1940). The “imperial commissar” Terboven is put. He is supported by Vidkun Quisling (1887-1945, executed), the leader of the Fascist “Nasjonal Samling”. The neutrality policy is given out by prime minister Gerhardsen (from 1945), but the nuclear weapons are strongly refused.

In Sweden 1907-1950 Gustav V rules. 1914 army and fleet are strengthened. Despite the demand of the USA to enter the war and ask for help of the Finish government against the Bolsheviks Sweden remains neutral. Social-democrats under H.Branting (1920, 1921-23, 1924-26) are succeded with Conservative and Liberal governments. 1932 Social-democrats under P.A.Hansson return to power. They fight with the world economic crisis and make a social reforms (from 1936 wellfare state is built). In the war it is preferenced land for political immigrants, but the USSR demands the giving out of the German and Baltic refugees. The social-democratic policy (from 1946 prime minister Erlander) aims to builds the wellfare state.

In Danemark under Christian X (1912-1947) Radicals and Socialists achieve a parliamentary constitutional reform (1915). In the WWI Danemark loses 21,7 percent (0,3 mill. BRT) of the trade fleet. After the referendum of the 1st zone (1920, 75 percent for Danemark) North Sleswig is given to Danemark. The interior policy is decided by the Social-Democrats (1920-42) under Th.Stauning. The German idea to conclude a non-attack pact is accepted 1939 (refused by Norway, Sweden and Finland). To secure the Swedish ore import and to get a broad attack basis for the trade war against the UK, a combinated sea, land and air enterprize of the occupation of Danemark (9.4), which surrenders without battle, takes place. The Danish government is further in office, an “imperial full powered” is put, the Danish government retreats (29.8.1943).

The political cooperation between the Nordic states is not big (neutrality, free of military unions), but after the ineffectiveness of the League of Nations and the resultless disarmament conferences they come closer. 1930 pact of Oslo is concluded: the economic union between Norway, Seden, Danemark, Netherlands, Belgium and Luxemburg (1933 Finland) is prepared. In January 1932 the foreign ministers of Danemark, Norway and Sweden meet in Kopenhagen (the Nordic conferences of foreign ministers are revived).

In Netherlands 1890-1948 Wilhelmina rules.After the German revolution Wilhelm II lives here (till 1943). 1933-39 the crisis cabinet of H.Coljin rules (as reaction for the economic crisis and unemployment). Stabilisation comes through the creation of work, successful fight of the finance crisis and of radical political movements, protective customs policy. No inflation of gulden. 1940 the king´s family and government flee to London. Nertherlands capitulate 15.5.1940. Arthur Seyss-Inquart becomes an “imperial commissar”, supported by Anton Adrian Mussert (1894-1946, executed), the leader of the Dutch National Socialists.

In Belgium Albert I rules 1909-34. In the WWI almost all Belgium is occupied by Germany. 1919 it gets Ruanda and Urundi (German East Africa). Because of the Versaiiles treaty it refuses from the neutrality and makes a military convention with France 1920 (therefore it takes part at the occupation of Ruhr 1923). Through the decision of the League of nations Eugen, Malmedy and Moresnet are given to Belgium (from Germany). For the interior policy the coalition government of three big parties is typical (Catholics, Socialists, Liberals). Both Flandria (Dutch) and Vallonia (French) has got a right for equality of their languages in the public use (1931/32). 1934-51 Leopold III rules. 1934-37 cabinet of national concentration of van Zeeland rules, under which government the Léon Degrelle’s Rexists have election success 1936. In the same the military union with Francce is abolished, Belgium returns to the neutrality. Germany, France and the UK make guaranty of the property and untouchness of Belgium 1937. 1940 the king is internated. The Fascist “Rexists” under Léon Degrelle support the Germans. Eupen-Malmedy and Moresnt are given back (18.5). Belgium capitulates 28.5.1940. German units attack till the Channel coast, but 335,000 British and French soldiers can ship from Dunkirk. 1948 Brussels help pact (Benelux states, the UK, France) is founded.

In Luxemburg the chamber votes in December 1918: 29 against 11 voices are for the continuation of the Great Duche. It is a defeat of attempts of Liberals and Socialist to overthrow the dynasty and make union with Belgium. Great Duchess Charlotte becomes a ruler. 1922 customary union with Belgium is concluded. 1925 the French occupation forces go home. Gauleiter Simon becomes a chief of the civil administration (2.8.1940).

Switzerland enters into the League of Nations after the London declaration of February 1920 that confirms a neutrality of the country. No participation at the military actions. In December 1937 Reto-Romanian becomes a fourth state language. In May 1938 the absolute neutrality is recognized with the League of Nations.

1917 the Finish autonomy inside Russia is recognized. In December 1917 the state independence of Finland is proclaimed. In January-May 1918 civil war takes place: fight of the “white” troops under the leadership of General Carl Gustav Freiherr von Mannerheim (1867-1951) against against the “red” troops of the revolting people’s committee. In December 1918 General Mannerheim becomes a head of state. 1920 peace treaty of Tartu with the RSFSR is concluded: the frontiers of 1914 are preserved, but the Petsamo region is incorporated. East Karelia remains in the RSFSR. 1921 the souverainity of Finland over the Aaland Isles is recognized by the League of Nations and neutralization of the isles. The interior fight between right and left favors an anti-Communist movement (Lappo movement). Communist party is prohibited (1930). Coalition governments make social reforms, among them agrarian reform (1922) that confiscated the property of the landowners (old Swedish upper layer). 1931 earlier state supervisor Svinhufhud becomes a President, it is followed by Kallio (Peasants’ party) in February 1937. 1932 non-attack pact with the USSR is concluded. After the denial of Soviet demands (giving of bases) the Soviet attack at Finland begins (30.11.1939). The USSR is excluded from the League of Nations (14.12.1939). After hard Finnish resistence the “Mannerheim line” is broken. To prevent a clash with the Western powers, which want to support Finland with a landing in Norway and damage the ore transports from Sweden to Germany, the Moscow peace is undersigned (12.3.1940): Finland gives the Karelian land bridge and parts of East Karelia and leases Hangö to the USSR. The USSR gets transit rights in Petsamo region. After the begin of the war with Germany Finland begins the “continuation war”. The break through of the front at Karelian isthmus (10.6.1944) cause the firecease of Moscow (19.9). The German Lappland army retreats to the North Norway. Under President Paasikivi (1870-1955) a Sovietisation is not possible. 1948 a help treaty, 1950 a trade treaty with the USSR are concluded.

In February 1918 the independence of Estonia is proclaimed. In November 1918 the Päts’ government begins to rule. The new-built army under Laidoner defends from the Bolshevist attacks (1918/19). 1920 the Tartu peace with RSFSR is concluded. In August 1920 the new parliamentary constitution is accepted. Estonia is recognized by the allied. A radical agrarian reform is made that removes the domination of the German Baltic nobility. The Bolshevist coup attempts did not come through. Non-attachment pact with the USSR is concluded 1932. The rightist Movement of the freedom fighters creates a presidial constitution of 1933 that takes the power from the parliament, but 1934 the Päts’coup switches off the Movement of the freedom fighters: the authoritarian state rule begins. 1937 the third constitution with parliamentary and corporative-autoritarian is accepted by the National assembly, elected with manipulations. Non-attack pact with Germany is concluded 1939.

In November 1918 the independence of Latvia is proclaimed by the Ulmanis’ government. Latvian interests are now in conflicts with German ones (Livland, determined by Germany, is founded). Riga, taken by the Bolsheviks, is reconquered with the the help of German free corpus and the German Baltic land army. Ulmanis also conquers Latgallia with the Estonian and Polish help. 1922 the definitive constitution is accepted. German Baltic upper layer is removed. After the building of government by the Peasants’ union Kviesis becomes a President 1930. The non-attack pact with the USSR is concluded 1932. In May 1934 coup of Prime Minister Ulmanis takes places. He rules autoritarily with a “cabinet of the national unity”: the new building of the chamber, but no constitution reform. 1936 Ulmanis becomes a President. Non-attack pact with Germany 1939.

To defend from the Soviet Russia Poland, Estonia, Latvia and Finland make a non-attack and consultative pact 1922 (Baltic Entente) that is not ratified by the Finish parliament. It has small politic consequences: only the Estonian-Latvian union of 1923 lasts long.

In December 1917 a Lithuanian state, connected with the German Empire, is proclaimed. The government of Voldemaras is built 1918. In November 1918 Lithuania becomes a free state. After the retreat of German forces a Communist counter-government is built in Daugavpils. But the attack of German troops in March 1919 and the Polish attack to Vilna (April 1919) defend Lithuania from the Communists. Vilna is given to Lithuania in December 1919. 1920, according to the Moscow peace with the RSFSR, the occupied Vilna is given back to Lithuania. 1920 in Memel the state council with French prefects is built. 1920 Suwalki agreement with Poland is concluded, but after the attack of General Zeligowski Vilna is lost 1922. Therefore Lithuania does not enter the Baltic Entente. In the same year the agrarian reform expropriates the old Polish domination layer. The constitution of democratic republic is accepted. 1923 the Lithuanian volunteers attack Memel. 1924 the conference of embassadors recognizes the annexion . According to the Memel statute, Memel gets autonomy under the Lithuanian supremacy. 1926 Russian-Lithuanian neutrality treaty is concluded. In December 1926 military coup takes place Smetona becomes a President. His party, the Nationalists (Tautininkai), has the alone domination till 1939, having switched off the parliament. In March 1939 the Memel region is given to Germany. According to the German-Soviet frontier and help treaty (28.9.1939) the USSR has a disposition right about Lithuania against the concessions of regions (Bug line, Suwalki region). The decay of the Baltic states is a sequence of the German-Soviet non-attack pact. In help treaties Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania are caused to evacuate the bases for the Red Army. The cabinett buildings and linked by the Soviet deputies elections cause the “pled” taking of the states in the USSR as 14, 15 and 16th republic in August 1940.

Poland.

In August 1914 Czar promises the autonomy to Poland. After the German occupation Poland is divided into the General Gouvernement of Warsaw and Military Gouverment of Lublin. 1916 the central powers proclaim the kingdom of Poland. Joseph Pilsudski (1867-1935) gets a sit in a new state council. In August 1917 the “Polish national committee” under National Democrat Roman Dmowski (1864-1939) is founded. 1917 a “regency council” as Polish government under German control is appointed. 3.11.1918 the Polish government is proclaimed, a “regency council” and its president Pilsudki retreat. So the Poland, liquidated 1795, appears again after the WWI. It’s territory is demilitated with Congress Poland and West Galicia, but already 1918 it gets East Galicia with Lwów, 1919 the “corridor” (the biggest part of the former West Prussia and the province Posen (Poznań), occupied by Poland from 1918, according to the Versailles treaty, as well as a part of the industrial Teschen region (West Galicia). 1920. 1919 the difference between “legionaries” (Pilsudski’s supporters) and National democrats are overcome and Paderewski’s government under the head of state Pilsudski. Pilsudski pleads for a Lithuanian-Belorussian-Ukrainian federation under the Polish leadership, National Democrats demand the “frontiers of 1772”, but the allied put the “Curzon line”. Despite it, in April 1920 the Polish-Russian war takes place. United with Ukrainian nationalist Petlyura, Pilsudski attacks till Kiev. The counter-attack of the Red Army is stopped at Warsaw through the Polish attack to the south with the help of the French General Maxime Weygand (1867-1965). After the military unions with France and Rumania (1921) the Riga peace (18.3.1921) follows: the Polish frontier is situated now ca. 250 km to the east of the people’ frontier. In October 1920 Vilna is occupied by the volunteers of General Zeligowski. The population votes for Poland 1922. 1921 Poland receives the most precious part of the Upper Silesia despite the referendum results (60 percent for Germany). After the acception of the parliamentary constitution (1921) and the election of the National Democrats (1922) Pilsudski retreats. President G. Narutowicz is killed soon. Socialist Stanislas Woijciechowski becomes his successor and rules 1922-1926. Economic and social crisis begins, fights against the national minorities and between the parties begin. The agrarian reform (18.12.1925) liquidates for all the German big landowners, but not the Polish ones. In May 1926 Pilsudski makes a coup. Prof. Ignaz Mošcicki (1867-1946) is a President. But Pilsudski, supported by “legionaries”, army and officials, leads a country as a Prime Minister (1926-28 and August-November 1930). 1930 the government bloc wins at the sejm elections through terror. 1934 the non-attack pact with Germany is concluded, but also the Polish-Soviet non-attack pact of 1932 is prolongated. 1935 a new authoritarian constitution (“linked democracy”) that abolishes the parliamentary democratic system is adopted. After the death of Pilsudski General (later Marshal) Edward Rydz-Śmigli (1886-1941) is proclaimed to the leading personality of the country 1936. Pilsudski’s death weakens the “regime of colonels”, to which Josef Beck (1894-44) as foreign minister belongs from 1922. 1937 the “camp of the national unity” is founded by Colonel Koc, who wants to strengthen the anti-Semitic and Conservative state ideology. In March 1938 Poland reaches the recognizing of Vilna frontier in an ultimatum to Lithuania. In October 1938 after the Munich treaty the Olsa region is annexed from Czechoslovakia. But after the rejection of German demands (March 1939) the German-Polish non-attack treaty is denounced by Hitler. In August 1939 (25.8) Polish-British support treaty is concluded. 1.9.1939 German attack at Poland begins. In the Polish campaign (“Fall Weiß”) the Polisjharmy is destroyed quickly (1. till 18.9) through the German tanks and avions. Only Warsaw (till 27.9) and Modlin (till 28.9) resist. The UK and France demand the retreat of German troops behind the frontier and announce the war (3.9). After the war Poland is “orderd anew” (October 1939): Danzig is incorporated (1.9) and the regions, given to Poland 1918 (imperial regions “Danzig-West Prussia” and “Warthe land”); the region of Kattowitz and Olsa region are given to the province of Silesia, the regions of Sudauen and Zichenau to the province of East Prussia. Other Poland as “General government” is subordinated to General governor Hans Frank (1900-1946, executed). Meanwhile, the Red Army invades East Poland (according to the treaty of 23.8.1939). 14.8.1941 military agreement between the USSR and the Polish exile government in London is made: Polish units from the prisoners of war are made, the German-Soviet treaties about the division of Poland are abolished. Friendship and assistence pact between the USSR and the Polish government is concluded. 1943 the mass graves at Katyn with the corpses of more than 4000 Polish officers are discovered. The Polish exile government demands an investigation through the Red Cross. Therefore the USSR takes a diplomatic relations to the “Polish committee for the national liberation” (Lublin committee). In sommer 1944 the Soviet Army comes till Wisla region. The Warsaw revolt of the Polish underground army (August-October) is unsuccessful: the Polish underground army capitulates; the army group North is encircled and East Prussia is reached (October). In the WWII Poland lost 4.2 million of civilians. Against the protest of the London exile government the supported with the USSR “Lublin committee” is announced to the “Provisory government” (1945) and takes the administration of the German east regions. The recongnized with the West powers “Government of national unity” supports the giving of the Polish East regions to the USSR. The moving of frontiers to the West cause decisive resettling and refugees`problems. Till 1947 national resistence groups are fought (WIN and NSZ groups). Bloc politics to liquidate the opposition, linked by the Communist party head Wladyslaw Gomulka and Josef Cyrankiewicz , prime minister from 1947. 1947 the falsified victory of the Democratic bloc (80%): the “Polish Stalin” Boleslaw Bierut (1892-1956) becomes a state president. The bourgeois politicians are imprisoned: Mikolajczyk, leader of the strong peasant party, flies to London (October). The national-communist group around Gomulka (1949 imprisoned) is nivelated. 1948 CP and Socialists build the United Workers´Party (PZPR). The Peasants´ (ZSL) and the Democratic (SD) party exists as shadow parties. 1949 the nivelation of the army takes place: the Soviet Marshal Konstantin Rokossowski of Polish origin becomes a defence minister.

Czekhoslovakia.

After the Pittsburgh treaty (1918) between American Czekhs and Slovaks (securing of autonomy for the Slovaks) a government is built in Prague: Tomas Garrigue Masaryk (1850-1937) is a President, Eduard Beneš (1884-1948) is a foreign minister (prime minister 1921-22, President 1935-1938, 1945-48). In October the republic is proclaimed by the national committee, which confirms the government of Karel Kramář (prime minister 1918-19) and Masaryk as President (1918-35). 1920 the constitution is accepted by the extended national committee. The new state is a parliamentary democracy (till 1939). The land reform (1919) expropriates the big land property. Because of the foundation of Rome-free Czekhoslovakian church (1920) and the proclamation of the Hus day to the state holiday (1925) the conflict with Vatican takes place (till 1927). The foreign policy under Eduard Beneš is pro-French. It is directed against Hungary (restauration of the Habsburgs, revision demands), Germany and Poland. 1920 the defensive treaty between Czechoslovakia and Jugoslavia is concluded, 1921 – with Rumania. Fight with the Slovaks, who demand the promissed autonomy (the Slovakian leader Prof. Vojtéch Tuka, 1880-1946, is condemned to the 15 years 1929) and the Sudetes Germans. Konrad Henlein (1898-1945, suicide), the leader of the “Sudetendeutschen Heimatfront” (from 1935 “Sudetendeutsche Partei”) composes the “Karlsbad Programm” (1938): equal rights, autonomy and liquidation of the damage, made from 1918. According to the Munich treaty (29.9.1938), the Sudetes land is incorporated into Germany. The Slovakia and Transcarpathia became autonomous. The weakness of the French partner and of the Small Entente cause the retirement of President Beneš. Under his successor Emil Hacha (1938-45) the Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia is established (1939). Slovakia enters the three-powers pact (24.11.1940).

From 1943 the London exile government of Beneš is in the union with the USSR. 1944 the treaty about the Czekhoslovakia occupation by the Soviet Army is concluded. The march of the Soviet Army from Bratislava to Prague causes the Czech revolt against the Germany forces 5.5.1945. The Beneš government has talks in Moscow about the restauration of the state. The Carpates region is given to the USSR, the Slovakia receives the limited autonomy. 1945 the exiled government is summoned in Prague (prime minister Socialist Fierlinger). Jan Masaryk (1888-1948, suicide?) is a foreign minister, Eduard Beneš (1884-1948) is a President. Klement Gottwald (1896-1953) is a deputy prime minister. The Sudetes Germans are expelled (till the end of 1946). Land possession and property of Germans, Hungars and collaborators is nationalized. The Soviet and American troops leave the country in December 1945. 1946 the Communist party wins at the elections (38 percent). The National front government under prime minister Gottwald is built. 1947 the treaty with Poland after the regulation of frontier conflicts is concluded. The decision of all parties to take part at the Paris Marshall conference is abolished under the pressure from Moscow (July). The Socialists refuse to unite with the Comminist party (November). Slovakian Democratic party is out of power with processes and imprisonements. In February 1948 the communist coup is made because of the retirement of twelve ministers from the protest against the Communist infiltration of the police (interior minister Communist Nosek). The trade union leader Antonin Zapotocky (1884-1957) puts Beneš under pressure with strikes and demonstrations. Prime minister Gottwald builds a new government. Beneš undersigns a new constitution and retreats. Gottwald becomes his successor, Zapotocky becomes a head of government. The country becomes a big industrial nation. 1949 the church fight takes place: the Catholic clergimen are imprisoned.

Hungary.

1.11.1918 the independent Hungarian government under Count Karolyi is formed. 1918 the republic is proclaimed (16.11). Prime minister (from 30.10) Count Michael Karolyi (1875-1955) becomes a state president (1919). He retreats because of the protest against the firecease conditions 1919. The Soviet government is built from Socialists and Communists (1885-1937). A Hungarian “Red Army” occupies parts of Slovakia. It is dissolved after the counter-attack of Rumanians. A counter-government under prime minister Pál Teleki von Szék (1920-21, 1939-41) nominates Admiral Nikolaus Horthy (1868-1957) to the commander-in-chief of the Hungarian army. Bela Kun flees (1.8). Budapest is occupied by Rumanian forces (August-November). 1920-44 Nikolaus von Horthy is a state supervisor. 1920 Hungary is proclaimed to the monarchy with the “vacant throne”.

4.6.1920 a peace with Hungary is concluded in Trianon. As sucessor of the Danube monarchy Hungary is seen as the war initiatior, Slovakia and Transcarpathia is given to Czekhoslovakia, Croatia and Slavonia to Jugoslavia, the Banat to Jugoslavia to Rumania, Transilvania to Rumania, the Burgenland to Austria. The army was limited with 35,000 people. Hungary lost 67,8 percent od the state square and 59 percent of the population. Two attempts of the former emperor Karl I to return as a king of Hungary (1921) were unsuccessful under the pressure of the Small Entente. The feudal system was preserved, the agrarian reform was not successful, Jews were suppressed (1938 restriction laws), the national radical goups grew, among them the “pole crossers” under Major Ferenc Szálasi (1897-1946, executed), who were united into the Hungarian National-Socialist (October 1937), the state was under burden. Reparation debts and the world economic crisis cause the financial crisis (1931). The revision demands are supported by Italy (from 1927). The French plans (uniting of the Danube space) are not supported by Hungary. French credit was connected with a demand to stop the revision propaganda. After the closing to the Germany under prime minister Gyula Gömbös (1886-1936), who was a right radical and anti-Semite, the Hungarian-French relations worsen (cooperation with Austria). In the treaty of Bled (1938) Hungary refuses to use force against the Small Entente. The visit of Horthy and the prime minister Bela von Imrédy (1938-39) in Berlin (August 1938) seals the German-Hungarian friendship. 1938 the first Vienna court decision (2.11): according to the München treaty Hungary gets Slovakian regions (among them Neuhäusl, Lewenz, Kaschau). 1939 the Transcarpathia is occupied. 20.11.1940 Hungary enters the three-powers pact. After the occupation of Hungary with Germans troops (19.3.1944 case “Margarete”) the secret firecease with the USSR (11.10) is made. After its announcement (15.10) Admiral Horthy calls it back under the German pressure. Horthy is brought to Germany, Ferenc Szálasi is his sucessor. A counter-goverment under General Colonel Béla Miklós-Dálnoki (23.12) declares war to Germany. 20.1.1945 firecease of Moscow. 1945 the land reform is made: church property as well as the possessions of Fascists and Germans are confiscated. Unrentable small enterprizes create conditions for the agrarian collectivisation. In November the party of small land owners wins elections: it wins 245 from 409 sits in the parliament. The small Communist prty has only 70 mandates, but puts four ministers: interior minister Imre Nagy (1896-1958, probably executed), transport minister Ernö Gerö, special minister Mátyás Rákosi (1892-1971). Terror wave against the “remnants of fascism” takes place. According to the Pais treaty (February 1947), Hungary is restaured in the frontiers of 1937. 1947 the party of small landowners is destroyed, the “complot” is discovered: show process against 220 members take place; prime minister Ferenc Nagy flees into the Switzerland. New elections give the Communist majority. Beside the USAP (Socialist workers party) only the parties of the People´s front reman 1948. Church resists the four point programm to make scholl a state one. Under interior minister János Kádár the clergy is persecuted. Joseph Kardinal Mindszenty is condemned to the death, which was substituted with the life-long sentence. Rigorous industrialisation and collectivisation take place.

In the whole, the Western Europe went through the two world wars and was divided into two camps: “Socialist” and “Capitalist”.

Questions:

1. Describe the culture of this time.
2. What was the history of the main West European countries of the time?
3. Describe the history of small West European countries in this period.

43. East Europe in 1910-1950.

1. Russia in 1910-1950.

In Russia the end of 21st period (1911-1917) and the first three periods of the 4th macroperiod.

1909 depression is succeeded with the new economic ascent, lasting to 1913. Despite it, the workers’ movement strengthens (events upon Lena 1912, revolt of soldiers of Tashkent guarrison etc.). 1912 the new, IV Duma was elected. Among social-democrats there is a struggle between Bolsheviks, Mensheviks and other groups, 1912 at the Prague party conference the definitive splitting between Bolsheviks and Mensheviks happened. In the same year the Bolshevist paper “Pravda” was created. The population of Russia reaches 165 mln.

 In the foreign policy Russia becomes more and more close to France, relations with England were regulated already 1907 with a treaty about the partition of influence spheres in Persia. Balkans remain dangerous; two wars take place there. Finally, 1914 the First World War began, in which Russia was an ally of England and France (Entente). Initially war is successful for Russia, Russia occupies Eastern Prussia and Galicia. The war actions in Turkey are successful too. But already 1915 the counter-attack of Germany and Austria-Hungary begins; war comes into the Russian territory, Germans occupy Poland, Lithuania and a part of Latvia (Kurland). 1916 Russia tries to break through the Austria-Hungarian front (Brusilov break through), but the attack was soon stopped. Meanwhile the economic sitiation in the country sharpened, victims of war reached 3,5 mln. of killed, wounded and prisoners. 650,000 Russian Jews were mobilized, 100,000 were killed. 1916 Rasputin, who influenced the queen Alexandra Fedorovna, was murdered. Strikes of workers and peasants’ revolts strengthen, 1916 the revolt in Central Asia takes place.

 In the begin of 1917 the situation with provision in Petrograd (from 1914) became critical, strikes in Petrograd and Moscow strengthen. At the end of February the general strike and revolt in Petrograd takes place, March 3 Czar Nicolas II abdicated. Power was taken by the Temporary Government. The new stage of Russian revolution began, which corresponds to the Girondist stage of the French (1792-93). Head of the Temporary Government was Prince Lvov, its members were mostly Kadets, Esers were represented by Kerensky. The most of government members were free masons. Orthodoxy also tries to reform, 1917 the Local Council is summoned, where in November 1917 the Patriarchy is restored (after more than 200 years break), it is also more reaction, than revolution. Germany tries to use the crisis in Russia for the threngthening of its positions, with German help Lenin returns to Russia and opposes the war. In the situation of crisis revolution moves on the ascending line, in April and June the demonstrations take place. At the I Congress of Soviets (June 1917) Bolsheviks were in the apparent minority, but they make the revolt in the begin of July, using the misluck of attack at the front. Revolt was unsuccessful for Bilsheviks, Lenin could flee. Kerensky becomes a head of the government, where now Mensheviks and Esers prevail. At the end of August the attempt of right coup – Kornilov mutiny – takes place, which also ended with fasco. After this masses become more and more left, in Petrograd and Moscow Soviets Bolsheviks take power. Trotsky, who make treaty with Bolsheviks, now plays more and more important part in the party. At the 1st of September Russia is proclaimed to republic, the elections to the Constituante take place. Foreign situation becomes more and more dangerous, Germans take Riga. October, 12 Military–Revolutionary Committee of Petrosoviet under Trotsky was established. The military revolt of the 25th of October was prepared to the IInd Congress of Soviets. The Temporary Government was arrested, Kerensky fled. The new macrostage in the Russian history began, which is usually called “Soviet”.

As every late epoch, 21st period is fruitful in the culture. Blok is especially famous among the Symbolists. The directions of Akmeists and Futurists (Mayakovsky, Khlebnikov) appear, the working of Esenin begins. The activity of Gorky and Kuprin continues. Among the Ukrainian writers of this period Kocyubinski and Panas Mirny were famous, in Galicia – Ivan Franko, in Belorussia – Yanka Kupala and Yakub Kolas. In biology and medicine Timiryazev, Mechnikov, Pavlov, Michurin, in aviation and rocket building – Zhukovsky and Tsiolkovsky make discoveries. Famous travelers and explorers were Kozlov, Komarov, Knipovich, Sedov etc. In painting the work of Repin, Serov, Wrubel, Vasnetsov continues. In the music – Skryabin and Rakhmaninov, famous actors and theoricians of theatre were Stanislvsky and Nemirovich-Danchenko.1913 300 years of Romanov dynasty are celebrated. Big changes usually come in some years after such jubilees (cp. 100 years of Patriarchy 1689, 7200 years of Old Byzantine calendar 1692, 60 years of the USSR 1982 and 70 years of revolution in 1987), so 1917 monarchy ceased to exist, soon the left radicals – Bolsheviks, corresponding to the French Jacobins, come to power.

 4 macrostage of Russian history (so called “Soviet epoch”, 1917-1991).

The “real socialism” in Russia was realy a transitional stage from feudalism to capitalism, which corresponds to the French history from 1793 till 1871. How to periodize the “Soviet epoch”? One could for example divide it according to the periods of rule of general secretaries (who were seven, including Lenin). But some of them (Stalin, Brezhnev) ruled long enough and evidently begin and end of their rule belong to the different historical periods. Others (Andropov, Chernenko, Gorbachev) certainly belong to one period. The official Soviet historiography proposed the next schema of history:

1. 1917-37 – building of socialism in the USSR.
2. 1938-58 - completion of building of socialism.
3. From 1959 -period of stretched building of communism.

The names of periods certainly belong to the “wishful thinking”, but as we will see soon, the mentioned over chronological dates really almost coincide with the limits of some periods.

The “Soviet period” – it is really a separate civilization, which existed more than 70 years. Therefore (like earlier macroperiods) it must be divided into the seven periods, which lasted 10-11 years each. Going out from this formal division, we will make a real division. Important dates are here not the dates of rule of this and that general secretary, but the important events inside the country (for example, the party congresses with an abrupt change of course) and changes in the foreign policy of the USSR. Let us analyze the separate periods.

1. (1) period – 1917-27.

At the II Congress of Soviets Russia was proclaimed to the Soviet Republic, the decrees about land and peace were proclaimed, the executive organs (SNK and VCIK) were formed; government included Bolsheviks and Left Esers. The coup of Krasnov was soon suppressed, but the establishment of Soviet power in Moscow and in the regions was a difficult task. Already in the epoch of the Temporary Government in the regions the national government are created, now they want to use the situation to proclaim independence of own countries. The independence of Finland was recognized by Bolsheviks, the fate of the Ukraine, where the nationalist Central Council, headed by famous philologist and historian Grushevsky, was another. Sovier power was established in Kharkov and Donbass, and to the end of January Bolsheviks entered into Kiev. Upon the Don Bolsheviks suppressed the resistence of ataman Kaledin only in March. In Transcaucasia (besides Baku, where Bolsheviks were strong) the national republics were established. A part of the Russian territory was under the German occupation, as earlier. Germans were ready to conclude the separate peace with Russia, the delegation, headed by Trotsky, was sent to Brest-Litovsk for the negotiation. At the elections to the Constituante not Bolsheviks, but Mensheviks and Esers won. The possibility of two powers was prevented by Bolsheviks, in January of 1918 the Constutuante was dismissed. Bolsheviks were supported with the repressive apparatus from the beginning, already December 7, 1917 VChK, headed by Dzerzhinsky, was established. In the same time some needed changes were made: peasants got land, the names and privileges of the strata were abolished, the Gregorian calendar was introduced and the reform of alphabet was made. Church was separated from the state and school from the church. This decision was really directed first of all against the Russian Orthodox Church, headed by Patriarch Tikhon, no wonder that it condemned the Bolsheviks sharply. The gratuite elementary education was introduced. Outer situation continued to be difficult, negotiations ended in fiasco and the new German attack began. The newly created Red Army was defeated gravely. Under the pression of consequencies the Brest peace was concluded (March 3, 1918). Russia lost almost all European territories, Ukraine was occupied by Germany, which established there the marionette regime of hetman Skoropadsky, Turkey occupied Transcaucasia. Russia, which became an Asiatic semicolonial country already in the previous time, now became it definitely. The exterior feature of it was moving of capital into Moscow in March of 1918. Left Esers protested against the conclusion of peace and left the government, so in the country the one-party system (totalitarian regime) was established, which existed till 1991. July 10, 1918 the first Soviet constitution (Vth Congress of Soviets). Russia became RSFSR.

 Refuse of Russia to continue the war and to pay the foreign debts caused the indignation of Entente lands, who tried to use the situation to divide Russia. England pretended for Caucasus and Central Asia, France - for the Ukraine and Crimea, Japan and the USA – for Far East. Rumania occupied Bessarabia 1917. In March of 1918 in Murmansk the English, French and American troops descended. In August the Englishmen invaded the Central Asia and suppressed the Baku commune, and in Vladivostok Americans and Japans came. The counter-revolution (not always monarchist) became active, Mensheviks, Esers and Kadets created own governments on the territories from Volga to Vladivostok. In July in 23 towns the mutinies of Esers took place, following the murder of German embassador Mirbach by Blumkin; at the 30th of August Eser woman-terrorist Kaplan made attempt to kill Lenin (possibly, it was a provocation of Bolsheviks themselves). In Ekaterinburg Nicolas II was executed with his family. It looked like Bolsheviks, like their predecessors Jacobins, will rule not more that one year, and their place will be occupied with Esers, Mensheviks or Kadets, who will play part of “Termidorians”. But history decided in another way. 1918 Bolsheviks were saved with the revolutions in Germany and Austria-Hungary, because of which these countries ceased the war and capitulated before the Entente. In the Ukraine the government of Directoria was formed, soon defeated by Bolsheviks. The revolt of the Chechoslovack corpus was also suppressed. But the hopes of Bolsheviks for the “world revolution” were not true, the attempts of socialist revolutions in Hungary and Bavaria were failed, Entente continued the military actions to support the “White army” in Russia (where now monarchists prevail). 1919 themain threat for Bolsheviks were the armies of Kolchak and Denikin, who proclaimed themselves in turn “the supreme rulers of Russia”, Yudenich attacked Petrograd. Politics of “military communism” caused the revolts of peasants, gangs and epidemies were severe. In the Ukraine anarchist leader Makhno fought both White and Red army. Till 1920 Entente ceased the intervention, the most forces of the White army were defeated. 1920 Russia recognized the independence of Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia, where the bolshevist revolutions wre suppressed. Peretensions of Poland on one side and strivings of Bolsheviks to “export the revolution” into Europe on the other caused the war with Poland, which has got the independence, finished 1921. According to the peace treaty of Riga Poland got Western Belorussia and Western Ukraine, it is also occupied a part of Lithuania with Vilnius. 1920 the armies of Wrangel in the Crimea were also defeated. The independent republics of Transcaucasia were occupied by Bolsheviks 1920-21, in the same time the war in the Central Asia was finished. Khiva and Bukhara formally still remained independent, 1920 they became “popular Soviet republics”, but the revolts of “basmachi” continued a long time. At the Far East 1920-22 the Far East and Coast republics existed, united with Russia only 1922. Civil war was a giant catastrophe for Russia, the country lost about 8 mln. of population. Almost all European territories were lost, but Russia could preserve independence.

 The foreign politics of new country consisted from the attempts of diplomatic acknolegment at the West and brother relations with the eastern countries, which were at the same stage of development. 1921 the treaties with Afghanistan, Iran and Turkey were concluded, in the result of last Russia lost the whole Western Armenia. In China Rusia initially supported Guomindan, later – the Communist Party of China, founded 1921. China remained disintegrated, in Mamzhuria a lot of White Army people settled, but the Outer Mongoly became a people’s republic (1924)and a second country in the world, building socialism (with a help of Red Army) from 1921. USSR could reach the diplomatic recognizing from the side of the European states only later, 1924-25 (besides Germany, which recognized the Soviet Russia already 1922).

 After the civil war the ruins, criminality and inflation reigned in the country. The politics of “military communism”, “prodrazverstka” (confiscations of production) etc. caused the indignation of peasants and many revolts. 23 mln. people hungered. 1921 the seamen in Kronstadt revolted, pleading for “Soviets without Communists”. Xth Congress of RKP (b) had to introduce NEP (New economic policy), “prodrazverstka” was replaced with a tax, trade began to develop, factories were leased, foreign concessions were created, small private factories were allowed. 1922 the money reform, strengthening ruble, was made. These measures were economically correct, but they called indignation in the party and were understood as the “withdrawal of revolution”. In the reality NEP corresponded to the “Termidorian” period in the history of French revolution (1794-1799, notice that if the Jacobins could preserve the power, they themselves would become Termidorians). The positions of Trotsky, strengthened in the time of the civil war, weaken again. With the progressing of Lenin’s illness the fight for power in the party between Trotsky, Stalin (who became a general secretary 1922), Zinovyev (who headed Komintern) and Kamenev and the “rights” – Rykov, Bukharin etc. begins.1922 the Soviet Union is created from four republics – RSFSR, USSR, BSSR and TSFSR, later the Transcaucasian republic was divided again into Georgia, Armenia and Azerbeijan, and Abkhazia was “forgotten” and included into Georgia. The Stalin’s project, according to which the republics were included into the RSFSR, was not accepted by Lenin. History shows, that this project was more clever that the plan of building of USSR – Soviet Union itself and built according to its example Yugoslavia and Chechoslovakia were disintegrated, but China, where the national regions have only autonomy (like in the Stalin’s plan) continues to exist in the previous frontiers.But in the epoch of domination of one party nobody thought about such “trifles”. 1924 the first constitution of the USSR was accepted, in the country the “dictatorship of proletariat” was proclaimed, which was in fact the dictatorship of one party, in which the bureaucracy strengthened. The number of Soviet continued to grow (for the cost of territory of RSFSR, which had results in 1991, 1925 Uzbek and Turkmen SSR were created), now the Union included eight republics. In the republics (including Ukraine and Belorussia) national languages were codified and became the state languages (together with Russian, which was proclaimed to the language of international communication), the school education in the national languages began.

 After the death of Lenin (1924) Rykov became his successor as the head of government. Stalin entered into the union with “rights” to remove from the power the “left” opposition (Trotsky, Zinovyev, Kamenev). Already at the XIVth congress (1925) they lost their positions, and on the XVth (1927) they were excluded from the party (for the anti-government demonstrations November 7, 1927). At these congresses the decisions about industrialization and collectivization of the country, so in fact for the dismantling of NEP, albeit it brought not bad economic results. Why did it happen? Do not forget that the things, which became evident for the party leaders after the 70 years of “socialism” in the USSR (or after 30 years in China), were not at all evident after ten years of revolution. Lenin himself saw NEP only as “retreat”, many revolutionaries saw it a tragedy. The foreign investments into Russia were also not big (in difference to modern China).

 This time was difficult dor the old Russian intelligentsia, many representatives of which greeted the February revolution, but then protested against the actions of Bolsheviks (even Gorky and Lunacharsky). Many were killed or emigrated. The philosophing mystics were ones of the main enemies of regime, 1918 the activity of theosophs was ceased, 1925 – of free masons, 1922 a group of Russian philosophers, headed by Berdyaev, was sent out from the country. The fight against religion, first of all against the Orthodoxy, was made. Initiated by Trotsky, inside the Orthodoxy the “obnovlenchestvo” (renewers), denouncing the hierarchy of Patriarch, was created. Many priests were murdered, the confiscations of church property were made. Under the pressure of repressions the church had to recognize the Soviet power (declaration of Sergy 1927), in the emigration the “foreign” ROCh is formed. But the left intelligentsia, which tried to collaborate with Bolsheviks, was called “poputchiki” (goers by) and did not have the credit of the party. Blok dies, fate of Esenin and Mayakovsky, who accepted the revolution, was tragic too. In the 20-s Pasternak begins his literary activity, Stanislavsky makes his theatric experiments. This time is generally characterized with different experiments, not always lucky (pedology, “new teaching about language” of Marr etc.). Tsiolkovsky and Tsander elaborate the rocket engins, Zhukovsky – aviation. The fate of painter Rerikh is worth of study: after the revolution he went to the East and created a new teaching of “Agni-yoga” (or living ethics) on the base of theosophy, trying to reconcile communism with Buddhism (early Nuddhism and “scientific atheism” really have something in common – the negation of God and soul, but the needed acception of some ethic values by Communists is subordinated to the interests of class fight). In the emigrationA.N.Tolstoy writes the fantastic novels, even Gorky lives in this time abroad. Old Russian intelligentsia is succeded by the new Soviet one, which is more conformist (because of the fear of repressions, but in these years also because of the not yet extinguished belief in the revolution). Epoch of different

literary groups and circles.

The “world revolution”, which was expected by Bolsheviks, did not happen, despite the efforts of the III (Communist) International, founded 1919. Therefore already 1925 st the XIVth Congress of VKP (b) the course for the building of socialism in one country was taken, which was opposite to Marx and Engels, but corresponding to some ideas of Lenin. Possibly nobody, even the leaders of the party, could imagin in these years what will be the “real socialism”.

1. (2) period – 1927-1938.

Period of fulfilling of the course of liquidation of NEP and the “building of socialism”. 1929 at the XVIth Congress of the party the first five-year plan was approved. In the same year Trotsky was sent out from the country, and the right oppositioners – Bukharin, Tomsky etc. were excluded from the party. From 1930 the Stalin functionary Molotov becomes a successor of Rykov as the head of government. Stalin is supported by the functionaries, who build a new exploitation class – nomenclature. 1929-30 the mass collectivization of peasants takes place, big peasants (to which number the middle and even the poor ones could be reckoned) are exiled. There were so many misdeeds in the time of collectivization that even Stalin has written an article “Head-swinging from the successes”.

But it did not change anything principally, and collectivization continued. Peasants, who had got the land 1917, now lost it. In the same time the forced industrialization was made, new factories and power stations were built. The “social competitions” and “udarniks” (hitters = best workers) appear. 1931 the unemployment is liquidated. After 1930 Stalin had no concurrents, corresponding to Napoleon I, but the measures of punishment strengthen, the invented “cases” are published, the camps of prisoners are sources of cheap working power. First five-year plan was fulfilled before the time, 1933-37 the second five-year plan was fulfilled. In this time the repression against church strengthen, the aim of five-year plan was establishment of atheism. Only a few bishops remained alive. Other religious organizations are also persecuted. The number of union’s republics grow (again for the cost of RSFSR), 1929 Tajik SSR, 1936 – Kazakh and Kirgiz are formed. In the same 1936 the “Stalin” constitution (composed really by a group of advisers, headed by Bukharin and Sobelsohn) was accepted, which was used in the country more than forty years. It corresponds to the Charte constitutionelle of Louis XVIII (1814), and the period - to the Restauration. The number of union’s republics reached 11, the dictature of proletariat was officially abolished. Instead of Congress of Soviets the Supreme Soviet, elected by population was introduced – a caricature of parlament. It looked superficially like a “democratization” of regime. But already then the repressions of 1937-38 begin, which were rectified with a thesis of Stalin about the sharpening of class struggle in the time of building of socialism (in fact the idea of Trotsky about the “permanent revolution”, which inspired later Mao Tsedong for the “culture religion”, was used) and with the difficult international situation (growth of Fascism in Europe). Instead of Yagoda Yezhov becomes the head of NKVD (Beriya from the end of 1938). Both a part of the old intelligentsia, supported the revolution, and the active participants of the revolution were liquidated (accept some like Kalinin, Voroshilov and Budenny). About 1,400,000 people were sentenced, a half of them executed. They were replaced by apparatus workers like Molotov and Kaganovich, who made carrier already in the Soviet time. Already Trotsky spoke about “Termidor” (he himself was killed in Mexico 1940), but it was an establishment of dictatorship of Stalin, who now typologically corresponds to Louis XVIII (1814-24), Trotskyites – to the Jacobins, Bukharin, Rykov etc., executed in that time, were “Termidorians”, Tukhachevsky, Yakir and other commanders - Bonapartists. 1938 the “Short course of history of VKP (b)” is created, which is written in the style of manuals of church history (which was now substituted with the party) and its fight with hereticians. In the country the substitute of religion – cult of Lenin and Stalin himself is established (who earlier was a student of spiritual seminary and probably understood the need of religion, in difference to Lenin).

 Meanwhile the foreign situation became more and more unfavorable for Russia. Crisis in the relations with the west appeared already 1927, when England has broken diplomatic relations with the USSR. 1929 Chinese (local Manzhurian ruler Zhang Xuelang) could occupy KVZhD (Chinese Eastern railway), which was exploited by Russia. 1931 Manzhuria was occupied by Japan, which threated Far East. In Europe Fascism strengthened, already 1922 it won in Italy, 1933 – in Germany. The world economic crisis helped it. The diplomatic victory of the USSR was establishment of relations with the USA 1933 and entering into the League of nations 1934. Germany, Italy and Japan concluded “Anti-Comintern pact” 1936. 1935 USSR concluded pacts about the mutual help with France and Chechoslovakia, 1936 with Mongolia. In the same year the civil war in Spain, in which the USSR supported republicans (among which were a lot of anarchists and trotskists, later the participants of the war were repressed in the USSR). The world moved to the new world war, 1938 Germany occupied Chechoslovakia and Japans invaded the Soviet territory in the region of Hasan Sea.

 Contradictory epoch in the realm of culture, which developed more against the efforts of Bolsheviks. From the West A.Tolstoy and Gorky returned, who wrote some more novels and died 1936. It was an apparent end of epoch. Meanwhile in the emigration Bunin has got a Nobel prize 1933. Creation of the Union of writers 1934 put the talented writers in the limits of “socialist realism”, which they could not follow. The biggest writer of this period is Bulgakov. Sholokhov writes “Quiet Don”. 1930 Mayakovsky committed suicide, 1941 – Marina Tsvetaeva.In the Ukraine Pavlo Tychina and Maxim Rylsky are famous, whose talent degrades with the promotion as “coryphaei” of social realism; in Belorussia – Yanka Kupala and Yakub Kolas. Politics of stimulating of national languages and cultures of 20-s is changed in 30-s, many its representatives were repressed as nationalists. Russian culture and history begins to be studied again. Cinema became a leading genre of art, famous regisseurs were Eisenstein and Dovzhenko. Metro is built. In Moscow old buildings are destroyed, among them temple of Christ Savior, and “Stalin towers” are built. Sculpture and painting also serve to ideas of “socialist realism” and to the cult of Lenin and Stalin. Some discoveries in the science take place, famous physic was Ioffe, Pavlov continues his investigations, Lebedev organizes industry of synthetic resine. In the sphere of archeology the discovery of monuments of state Urartu – the oldest state at the history of the USSR was important.1937 Chkalov, Baidukov and Belyakov fly into the USA through the North Pole. Illiteracy is liquidated, new universities are opened.

 According to the Soviet historic scholarship, till 1936 the socialist state was built in general. In reality the country became a kind of “oriental despoty” with “Pharaoh” Stalin and millions rightless slaves-prisoners. After the suppression of opposition the”dictatorship of proletariat”, i.e. a Bolshevist party, was succeeded with a dictatorship of one man, who was supported with the punishing organs of NKVD and the growing layer of nomenclature bureaucrats.

1. (3) period – 1938-45.

The third five-year plan, planned for 1938-42, really lasted till 1945 because of the war. Already XVIII congress of VKP (b) 1939 put the task to reach and supercede the important capitalist states in the economic relation.Really first of all the heavy industry and military branches were financed. 1940 the industrial production superceded 8.5 times the level of 1913, but the agriculture only reached the level of 1913. The system of collective and state farms with its “hungry” working days did not favor its development. Country prepared to the war, 1939 the new law “About the general military duty” was accepted, new tanks and avions were built. From May to September 1939 in Mongolia the fight with the Japanese troops took place in the region of Halhin Gol River (earlier at the Lake Hasan). The repressed commanders of the civil war times (Yakir, Tukhachevsky etc.) were replaced by the others, first of all Zhukov, who distinguished in Mongolia.To prevent the war in two fronts, the USSR concluded the treaty about non-attack with Germany for ten years (Molotov-Ribbentrop pacts) August 23, 1939. According to the pact (corresponding to the Tilsit treaty 1807) the partition of spheres of influence in Europe between the USSR and Germany was made. The USSR in fact restored the old western frontier of Russian empire (without Poland and Finland). War with Finland ended relatively unsuccessful, only a part of territory under Leningrad (Vyborg) was added, despite 1940 the Karel-Finnish SSR was created. 11.2.1940 economic treaty of Germany with the USSR was concluded. In the same year the Baltic republics were occupated, and the territory of Bessarabia, given back by Rumania, was divided between the Ukrainian SSR and the formed Moldavian SSR (Moldavian ASSR, including the modern Dnestr region, earlier was a part of the Ukraine). In September 1939 as the new (4th) partition of Poland the Western Ukraine (besides Transcarpatia) and Western Belorussia were added. Now the Soviet Union had already 16 republics. Meanwhile Hitler managed to occupy almost whole continental Europe, including France. The uniting of Germany and the USSR in the fight against England seemed real (the plan of Okawa proposed the Russian attack in Iran and India), but Hitler, who hated Slavs and already 1924 prepared for the war against Slavs, decided in other way.

 June 22, 1941 the Great Patriotic war began. The mistakes of Stalin, who believed Hitler (despite different warnings), gave the possibility to the Germans to occupy big territories. They were supported with the inhabitants of Baltic countries and with a part of Ukrainians, who were soon deceived in their hopes to create a Ukrainian state under the protection of Germans (like Croatia and Slovakia). But the Stalin dictatorship was especially effective in the war time. 1941 Stalin becomes a head of government. “Blitzkrieg” was not successful, Hitler was defeated at Moscow. At the occupied territories the executions of Jews and Communists were made, collective farms were liquidated. 1942 the army of general Vlasov came on the side of Hitler, but attack to Caucasus was not successful, in November Germans were gravely defeated at Stalingrad. From December 1941 Japan was at war with the USA and England and did not opened the second front in Siberia. 1943 the Kursk battle takes place, in November Kiev is liberated. In the war time to rise the battle mood of warriors Stalin comes closer to the Orthodoxy, from 1943 Patriarchate is restored (under Sergy Stragorodsky), the orders of Alexander Nevsky and Suvorov are established, the military ranks are restored in the army, the Comintern is dissolved, instead of “International” the Soviet anthem is introduced. The Stalin’s politics becomes more national Russian. At the end of 1943 the conference in Teheran takes place, allies (Great Britain and the USA) open the second front in Italy (earlier the war actions took place in Africa) and defeat Mussolini. Under the pretext of collaboration with Hitler Stalin exiles some Caucasian people, the Crimea Tatars and Volga Germans. 1944 the attack of Red Army continues, the blocade of Leningrad is broken, the whole territory of the USSR is liberated. Meanwhile the allies open the second front in Normandy, France is liberated. 1945 allies occupy the Western Germany, the USSR – the Eastern Germany with Berlin. Germany capitulates May, 8 1945. According to the Potsdam conference, the USSR gets the East Prussia with Königsberg and Transcarpatia, united with the Ukrainian SSR. But the war with Japan continues. USA make barbaric nuclear bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Red Army liberates Manzhuria, September 2 Japan capitulates. USSRgets Southern Sakhalin and Kuriles, Port-Arthur and Dalny become the Russian bases in China again (according to the treaty with Chang Kaishek), earlier (1944) Tuva was brought to the USSR.

 The victory of the USSR was achieved with a life of ca. 27 mln. people, among them 13.6 million soldiers (Germans lost 3.1 mln.), the guerilla movement was active, Zhukov, Konev, Rokossovsky were famous generals. Stalin managed to rule the country in this difficult time, the anti-Communist revolt in Russia, which was hoped by Hitler, did not happen. The evacuated inside the country offices – universities, academies wtc. Continued its work, new tanks and reactive missiles (“katyushas”) are built. The actors are mobilized to front to rise the battle mood of warriors, this aim is persecuted with films and other works, A.Tolstoy writes a patriotic novel “Peter I”. In difference to the earlier twenty years, the turn to the heroic past of Russia takes place. 1945 Stalin becomes a generalissimus. But soon the new partition of world takes place and the “cold war” begins.

2. Balkan countries in 1910-1950.

a) WWI.

1910 Nikita I of Motenegro takes the king´s title. 1911 the Great Serbian secret organization “Uniting or death” (Black hand) by Colonel Dimitrijević-Apis. 1912-13 Balkanes crisis. Unrest in Albania (Essad Pasha), interior struggles and weakening of the Turkey because of the Tripolis war with Italy (1911-12) unite Serbia and Bulgaria. Supported by the Russian diplomats, both states unite into the 1st Balkan union (against Austrian extension at the partition of the European Turkey) in March 1912. Greece and Montenegro enter the union. In October 1912 1st Balkan war begins: four partners declare war to the Turkey. Turks have heavy defeats at Kirk Kulisse, Lüle Burgas and before Adrianople (from Bulgaria), at Kumanovo (through Serbia). As consequence a kritical international situation is developing: Serbia, supported by Russia, demands access to Adria, which is opposed by Italy. Italy wishes the annexion of Albania and asks for the prolongation of the union of three. Greece protests against the Italian occupation of the Dodekanes (1912). Austria-Hungary is against the Serbian and Italian power growth and supports Bulgaria. Russia (foreign minister Sazonov) opposes its pressure at Serbia and Turkey. Germany (chancellor Bethmann Hollweg) and England (Grey) try to organize a peace of London (May 1913) at the London embassadors´ conference (December): all Turk regions to the west of Enos-Midia lone and all Aegean isles.

Bulgaria attacks Serbia. In June 1913 the 2nd Balkan war begins: the intervention of Rumania, Greece, Montenergo and the Turkey in the favor of Serbia complicate the situation. Austria-Rumanian relations become cooler (because of the Rumanian minory in Transilvania). Austria-Hungary wants to intrude to save Bulgaria, but is hindered by Germany and Italy. In April 1913 the peace of Bukarest is concluded: Bulgaria loses Macedonia and Dobruja; Crete is give to Greece definitely; Albania becomes an independent princedom (under Prince Wilhelm zu Wied, which is used by Essad Pasha). As result, all are disapointed, for all Serbia, hich did not reach Adria, hindered by Austria-Hungary. Serbia tries to accomplish the national idea.

28.6.1914 the Austria throne successor, Archduke Franz Ferdinand (1863-1914), who pleaded for the autonomy for the Southern Slaves, and his spouse are murdered by the Bosnian student Princip in order of the secret organization “Black hand” (no direct participation of the Serbian government) in Saraevo. 23.7 Austria-Hungary puts an ultimatum of 48 hours to Serbia: demands to fight the actions against Austria-Hungary with Austria participation and punish the guilty. 25.7 Serbia tries to support his sovereignity and makes a part mobilisation. At the same day at the crown council in Krasnoye Selo Russia decides to support Serbia. 28.7 Austria-Hungary announces war to Serbia. 6.8. Serbia declares war to Germany. 6.9.1915 Bulgara concludes a friendship and union treaty with Germany: for his war entrance (14.10.1915) it gets Serbia Macedonia. At the war entrance of Greece and Rumania at the side of the allied Bulgaria makes pretension for Greek Macedonia and the Dobruja. 3.8.1914 Rumania announces its neutrality (3.8.1914), but concludes a treaty with the allied (1916), which promiss the Banat, Transilvania and the Bukovina to the Rumania. 27.8.1916 war announcement of Rumania to Austria-Hungary appears, therefore the central forces declare war to Rumania. Initially Greece remains neutral. 1916 the Greek coast is blocated by the allied. The provision of population is endangered, Greece must make concessions. After the unltimatum of the French supreme commissar Jonnart in June 1917 the Greek king Konstantin abdicates, the new government under Prime Minister Venizelos is built. 27.6.1917 Greece enters the war at the side of the allied. In October 1915 the central powers attack Serbia and conquer Belgrad. In November 1915 the battle at Kosovo field takes place, Montenegro is conquered (December), march into Albania (January 1916). The front in Macedonia is preserved till 1918. The campaign against Rumania (from 28.8.1916) ends with the taking over of Bukarest (December 1916). In the war Serbia has lost 360,000 people, Rumania – 250,000 people.

27.11.19 the peace treaty with Bulgaria is undersigned in Neuilly: the South-West Thracian regions at the Mediterranean coast are given to Greece, bur Bulgara preserves access to the sea (Dedeagach). The army is restricted by 20,000 people. The Balkan states preserve their independence in the WWI, but they are splitten in two groups: newly founded Yugoslavia, Rumania and Greece are for the status quo, Hungary and Bulgaria demand the revision of the Paris suburb treaties. A common Balkan policy is impossible.

b) Balkan states in 1919-1949.

Rumania.

With the win of the Bukovina, Transilvania and Bessarabia (1918) as well as thwo third of Banat (1919), Sathmar, Großwardein and Arad in fight against the Hungarian “Red Army” Rumania doubles its territory and its population, but changes from a national to a multinational state and becomes enemy to the USSR, Hungary and Bulgaria. The interior policy is decided by Ionel Bratianu (1864-1927), leader of the Liberals and creator of the Great Rumania. 1928 Iuliu Maniu (1873-1951), leader of the National Peasants´ party (National Zaranistes), becomes a prime minister after the inside struggle. Free elections, but no appeasement of the peasants (agrarian crisis).

In February 1930 in Rumania the personal government of returned King Carol II, which is supported by the Liberals, is built. Maniu is out of power, fight against the anti-Semitic, right groups (“Iron guard” under Corneliu Codreanu, 1899-1938, murdered; “Christian-National Party”). 1933 the Small Entente (Czekhoslovakia, Rumania, Yugoslavia) is organized against Hungary. 1934 the Balkan pact between Yugoslavia, Greece, Rumania and the Turkey is concluded.

Despite the growth of the “Iron guard” at the elections of 1937 the cabinett building of the Patriarch Miron Christea (1868-1939) follows 1938 (“National concentration”): the abolishment of costitution, the prohibition of all parties, the law about the “keeping of the order in state” and the condemnation of Codreanu accomplish the king´s dictatorship. The foreign policy remains oriented westwards because of the position against the USSR and Bulgaria, but under the rowing nationalist pressure foreign minister Titulescu has to retreat 1936. 1939 trade treaty of Rumania with Germany is concluded. 1939 English-French guarancy declarations for Poland, Rumania, Greece, the Turkey and Belgium after the Chamberlain´s speech about the end of the appeasement policy (17.3.). The talks of the UK and France with the USSR are unsuccessful also because of the resistence of Rumania and Poland, which do not allow the transition right to the Soviet Union. 23.11.1940 Rumania enters the three-powers pact. The land losts the North Bukovina and Bessarabia to the USSR (28.6), North Transilvania to Hungary, the South Dobruja to Bulgaria (2nd Vienna court decision, 30.8). Ion Antonescu (1882-1946, executed) becomes a head of state (4.9.1940).

After the Soviet attack at the Balkanes (August 1944) Marshal Antonescu is imprisoned (23.8). The cabinet of General Sanatescu stopps the fight against the USSR and gives the free way out to the Germans. After German bombarding of Bukarest war announcement to Germany follows. The Soviets occupy the oil region of Ploesti (30.8) and Bukarest (31.8). 12.9.1944 firecease of Moscow is concluded. According to the talks in Moscow (Churchill, Eden, Stalin, 9-18.10.1944) Rumania, Bulgaria and Hungary are under Soviet, Greece under British, Yugoslavia under Soviet and British influence.

The People´s front agreement (1944) of the Communist Party under Gheorge Gheorghiu-Dej (1901-65) with the Peasants´ Party (Maniu) and Liberal Party (Bratianu) is dismantled; a National Democratic Front (FND) is built from Socialists, Communist Party and Land workers´ Front under Petru Groza (1884-1958), which FND begins agrarian reform. 1946 FND gets 89 percent of voices. The opposition disagrees with the election results and is destroyed; Bratianu flees. 1947 the Peasants´party is prohibited: Maniu is condemned, the Liberal foreign minister Tartarescu is succeded by the “Stalin´s statehoulder” Anna Pauker (till 1852); king Michael abdicates (December). According to the Paris treaty (February 1947) the lost of Bessarabia and Bukovina is confirmed. 1948 the Unity Party PMR (General secretary Gheorgiu-Dej) is founded.

Yugoslavia.

The politic of preparing of the South Slavonic state is burdened with two different goals: creation of a Great Serbia (Pašić) and creation of a South Slavonic confederation (Trumbić). The controversy is overcome in the Korfu declaration of 1917, according to which a kingdom is to be created according the principles of the self-determination right. 1918 the Kingdom of Serbs, Croatians and Slovens is created. 1921 the “Vidovdan” constitution is accepted: inside the unitary state the minorities do not receive autonomy. Because of the interior crisis (contrversy between Serbs and Croatians, murder of Stefan Radić (born 1871), the leader of the Croatian Peasants´ Party (June 1928) and opening of the separatist Croatian land parliament in Zagreb (August 1928) King Alexander (1921-34, murdered) proclaims the King´s dictatorship (January 1929): suspension of the constitution, prohibition of the parties, dissolving of the parliament (Skupština). The new “Yugoslavia” is divided into nine banates. 1931 the dictatorship is abolished. New constitution with two-chambers system and public parliament elections (unity lists of the government). Revolts of the Croatian peasants (Ustasha). Under the Prince regent Paul (1934-41) and after the retreat of the prime minister Stodjadinović (1935-39) the new prime minister Cvetković (1935-39) takes five Croatian ministers in the government.

25.3.1941 Yugoslavia enters the pact of three powers. But after the coup d´etat in Belgrad (27.3.1941) and friendship treaty of the new Yugoslavian government with the USSR (5.4.1941) the war with Germany begins. The war, began with the air attack to Belgrad (6.4), end with the encirclement and capitulation of the Yugoslavian army (17.4). Italian, Hungarian (11.4) and Bulgarian troops enter Yugoslavia. King Peter II (1934-41) flees. An exile government in London is built. A German military government is built in Serbia, the dependent from it government is allowed. Lower Stiria and parts of Kraina are given to Germany, Ljubljana, the Dalmatian coast region and Montenegro (officially “independent”) to Italy, the Drava corner and a half of Bachka to Hungary, the West Macedonia to Bulgaria. In Croatia the Italian Duke Aimone of Spoleto becomes a king, formally it is an independent, autoritarian state (10.4.1941) under the “Poglavnik” Ante Pavelić, which was supported with the Fascist “Ustasha” government. 18.10.1944 Belgrad is liberated by the Tito partisans, who made a connection with the Soviet Army after 6.9. Marshal Josip Broz Tito (1892-1980), 1945 prime minister, 1953 President, arranges the early retreat of the Soviet troops (March 1945). He builds a coalitionary government with exile politicians and concludes a help treaty with the USSR (abolished 1949). Elections to the National assembly take place: the unity list of the “People´s liberation front” receives 90 percent of voices. 1945 the Federative People´s Republic of Yugoslavia is proclaimed: it is multinational state from 6 lands and 2 autonomous regions. 1946-47 interior Sovietisation with the help of political police (under Ranković) and the secret services; execution of political enemies. Nationalisation of trade, industry, and banks, social insurance and collectivisation. The goal of the foreign policy is the incorporation of Istria and Triest. 1947 Paris peace treaty: Istria is given to Yugoslavia, Triest becomes a free state under the UN high commissar. 1946-47 Italians are expelled from Yugoslavia. 1948 split with Moscow, which hinders the Yugoslavian plan of a Balkan federation with Bulgaria and Albania. An economic blocade cause Tito to the trade agreement with the Western countries. Moscow reacts with the persecution of “revisionist Titoism” for the “own way to socialism”.

Bulgaria.

The peace treaty of Neuilly, the acception of the expelled, the pretension for Macedonia, a latent peasants´ revolution and the attempt to create a Great South Slavonia under the peasant leader Stambulijski burdens the land. In June 1923 after an officers´ coup in Bulgaria the Zankov government is built. The Peasants´ party (prime minister Stambulijski is killed) and the Communist party are dissolved. After the coup of two nationalist organisations (“Zveno”, union of the reserve officers) an autoritarian regime of Colonel Georgiev is established. After his retreat (January 1935) Czar Boris III (1918-43), married with Italian princess Giovanna, rules autoritarily.

1.3.1941 Bulgaria enters the three powers pact. In March 1941 the German 12th army is situated in Bulgaria. 5.9.1944 the USSR announces the war to Bulgaria, which is in the war situation with the UK and the USA. War declaration of Bulgaria to Germany follows 8.9. 1944. After the coup d´etat of the pro-Soviet Bulgarian group over Georgiev (9.9) the resistenceless occupation of the land with the Soviet Army follows. 28.10.1944 the firecease of Moscow is concluded. 1947, February a Paris treaty with Bulgaria is concluded.

The “Fatherland Front”, led by the former General Secretary of the Komintern Georgi Dimitrov (1882-1949), abolishes the monarchy through the people´s vote. The new government with Dimitrov as prime minister destroys the opposition of the Peasants´ Party 1947 (its leader Petkov is executed).

Greece.

In the time of WWI culmination of the policy of prime minister Eleutherios Venizelos is built with the winning of West and East Thracia (1919) and Smyrna (1920). But because of the Greek-Turkish war (1920-22) accordng to the Lausanne treaty (1923) Greece lost East Thracia till Maritsa. Agrarian is made: it is a confiscation of the public and privat big land possession and distribution to the peasants, under the Greek immigrants from the Turkey and refugees from the Balkan states and the USSR. 1924-35 Greece is republic. Interior fights between Venizelists and Royalists take place, but stability under the renewed Venizelos` government (1928-32): reconciliation with the Turkey through the Greek-Turkish agreement and and treaty of Ankara (1930). After the attempt of the coup d´ état of Venizelos the monarchy is proclaimed 1935. King Georg II returns (1922-24, 35-47). In August 1936 the coup of General Metaxas takes place. He becomes a prime minister: parliament is out of power, the agrarian reform is finished. 28.10.1940 Italian campaign against Greece begins from Albania. In the counter-attack Greeks occupy a third of Albania, the Italian fleet is weakened in Tarent with the British avions (11-12.11). The British support points at Crete are founded, later British forces (ca 70,000 people) in Piraeus and Volos (from March 1941). As answer Germans invade Greece. The attack at Greece is finished with the Greek capitulation in Saloniki (21.4) after the breaking through of the Metaxa line, the taking over of Saloniki (9.4) and the attack through the Pindos mountains. The capitulation is repeated before Italy 23.4. After the break through of the British position at Theropylai passage (24.4) the British troops are shipping (till 30.4). Athens (27.4), the Peloponnesos and the Greek isles (till 11.5) are occupied with German troops. 20.5-1.6.1941 successful German descending at Crete (“Mercury”). As result a German, in the middle of 1941 an Italian military administration (German reservates). King Georg II flees to London, a Greek exile government is built. At the Hitler´s order (25.8) Greece is evacuated (till 2.11.1944): The German troops (army group E) retreats to the new position in the permanent fights with partisans and Bulgarians. The exile government returns. In Greece civil war between Communists and Monarchists begins. The Greek “People´s Liberation Army” (ELAS) of the Communist “Greek Liberation Front” (EAM) destroys the anti-Communist “Greek Democratic National Army”. After the unsuccessful mediation effort of Churchill and Eden in Athens (25-27. 12) King Georg gives the power to the Archbishop Danascinos of Athens (31.12.1945). British troops are used against Communist EAM troops till the firecease (February). 1947- 64 Paul I rules. The Communist EAM republic in the North is fought with the built with the US help government army. 1949 the civil war is finished by Field marshal Papagos (1883-1955).

In the whole, the Orthodox Balkan states survived the WWII practically without changing of frontiers (besides Rumania). Rumania, Bulgaria and Yugoslavia became “socialist” (Bulgaria and Rumania enter COMECON 1949, Greece – NATO 1952, Yugoslavia remains neutral), Greece remains capitalist after the civil war.

Questions:

1. Describe the begin of period of militarism in Russia.

2.What were the main causes of revolution of 1917?

3. Describe the first period of Soviet history.

4. What changes did take place in the second period of Soviet history?

5. Describe the 3rd period of Soviet history.

6.What events were in the Balkans in the time of WWI?

7.Describe the main events of the Balkan history from 1919 till 1949.

44. Jews in 1910-1950.

a) Jews of Europe in 1910-1950.

Jews took part in the WWI both at the side of the Triple Entente and at the side of the Central powers. Total number of Jews, mobilized for the Entente, were 1,055,500 people, 123,500 were killed. France mobilized 55,00 Jews, 9,500 were killed; the UK – 50,000 Jews, 8,500 were killed. The total number of Jews, mobilized for the Central powers, was 450,000 people, from whom 54,000 died. Among them: for Austria-Hungary – 320,000 people were mobilized, 40,000 died; for Germany – 100,000 were mobilized, 12,000 died, Bulgary – 12,500 were mobilized, 1,000 died.

The situation of European Jews was aggravated after Hitler had come to power. Already in his main work “Mein Kampf” (1923-1925) he preaches the anti-Semitic course. The “wild actions” after 30.01.1933 were followed by the “Boycott day” (1.4.1933). The action is directed mostly against Jewish shop-keepers, Professors, teachers, students, schoolchildren, lawyers and doctors. The state organisation for all Jewish people and organisation, the “Reichsvertretung der deutschen Juden” (State representation of the German Jews) under the presidency of Rabbi Dr. Leo Baeck (1873-1956), built 1933, helps at the emigration and at the change of job, at the foundation of Jewish schools as well in social and cultural fields. The Nurnberg laws (15.9.1935) prescribe: 1. “Reichsbürgergesetz” (state citizen’s law): Jews lose the citizenship equality because of the division of population into “Staatsangehörige” und “Staats- oder Reichsbürger”. 2.” Law for protection of the German people and the German honour”: the “race” mixed marriages and the “out-of-marriage intercourse between Jews and Staatsangehörigen of German species-related (artverdwandten) blood” are prohibited. The raising of the national flag and the employment of non-Jewish women employees under 45 years are also prohibited to the Jews. In the next years 13 additional orders to the “Reichsbürgergesetz” are published: the Jews are excluded from the state community. 1938 sees a culmination of the NS Jews’ policy before the WWII. The Jewish cult unions become “registered unions” (28.3), property about 5,000 RM has to be declared (26.4), numeration of the Jewish crafts factories (14.6), liquidation of approbation of all Jewish doctors (25.7), changing of family names and surnames (17.8: addition of names “Sara” and “Israel” by Jews with non-Jewish names), liquidation of permission of the Jewish lawyers (27.9), confiscation of the travel passes (5.10 new passes, where a letter ”J” is added), deportation of ca. 17,000 Polish Jews, living in Germany (28.10). The attempt upon the embassy adviser von Rath in Paris (7.11.1938) of Herschel Grynspan, the 17th years old son of a forced deportated, gives pretext to the organized pogroms in whole Germany (9-10.11.1938, “Kristall nacht”): synagogues are burned, cemeteries plundered, Jewish buildings destroyed, ca. 26,000 Jewish men imprisoned.. 12.11.1938 the state demands 1 billion RM as compensation, restoration of the damage, caused by the crowd, repaying of the compensations, made by the insurances. “Exclusion” of the Jews from the German economic life (“Zwangsarisierung”), prohibition of the visits of culture places and the use of public means of transport, as well as access to the universities follow.

1939 because of the aggravation of position of the German Jews the strong Jewish emigration follows, which is oft unsuccessful because of the absence of help of the target lands, the confiscations and the impossibility of currency transfer. After the begin of WWII the police power in the occupied regions is situated in the hands of Himmler and his organs (SS, SD = security service). In Poland the extermination has three stages: 1. Ghettoisation (Ghettos and bringing into the working camps), then liquidation at the place (till 1941) or transport into the extermination camp (from 1942). 2. Mass imprisonments, executions. 3. Searches, pogroms with the help of native militia. In Russia the extermination of the Jews is made by the war troops. 31.7.1941 the SS-Obergrüppenführer Reinhard Heydrich (1904-1942, murdered) is empowered by Göring to the “Final solution of the Jewish question”, i.e. the biological extermination of the Jews. 20.1.1942 “Wannsee conference” takes place. The program is established: work in workers’ columns (separation of the sexes; decimation through compulsory work with the unsatisfactory nutrition; “corresponding attitude” to the “remnants”. Transport of all European Jews to the East. Bringing of heavy injured in the war and Jews with war awards in Theresienstadt (Timishoara). 5.7 million of European Jews were murdered or died from gases in the extermination camps Auschwitz (Osvęcim), Chelmno, Belzec, Sobibor and Treblinka. The most Jews were murdered in Poland (3 mln.) and in the USSR (1.2 mln). The most allied of friendly to Germany powers support the extermination of Jews through the corresponding laws. Finland, Italy (only 7,500 Jews were murdered), Bulgaria, Danemark resist to this practice.

b) Palestine in 1910-1950.

1917 Lord Balfour consents to establish a national state of Jews in Palestine. 1920 British mandate over Palestine is arranged despite the “Balfour declaration”. Lasting fights between Arabs and Jews begin. Organized by the Jewish Agency (inofficial government), the Histadrut (united trade union with own factories, settlements, schools) and the National foundation (for the purchase of land), the Jewish immigration becomes stronger from 1933. 1939 a third of the population and 12 percent of the land in Palestine is Jewish. The resistance of Arabs, who are backward economically, politically splitten into the supports of the Great mufti Huseini of Jerusalem and King Abdallah of Jordan (1882-1951, king from 1921), grows. 1936-39 civil war takes place: the British mandate administration supports Arab guerrilla fighters and Jewish Haganah (military self-defence) in change. Both parties refuse from the compromise propositions as well as the Peel’s partition plan (1937). The British government concedes to the Arab pressure in the White Paper politics (1939): restriction of the Jewish immigration and land purchase to keep an Arab majority, fought by the Jewish terrorists (Irgun Zwai Leumi). Staying between indirect British and direct German anti-Semitism, in the WWII the Jewish agency supports the allied and makes Palestine to the provision center of the allied, meanwhile Arabs (Great mufti of Jerusalem) favour the axis powers. From 1942 the Jewish volunteer brigade as part of the British army exists. 1940 till 1945 54,000 immigrate to Palestine. After the war end the British White Paper politics is continued: blockade of the illegal Jewish immigration ships (“Exodus” tragedy); concentration (concentration camp in Cyprus) and return of Jews. A British-American commission (1946) demands the opening of frontiers for 100,000 Jewish immigrants. Despite it, 1946-47 66,000 Jews immigrate. Foreign minister Bevin finds no solving of the problem at the Palestine conference of London (with the participation of Arabic League, which decides for the war), therefore he gives it to the consideration of the United Nations. 1947 the UNSCOP special committee recommends the partition of Palestine, approved by the UN full assembly and the Jewish Agency, but rejected by the Arabs. Their “Liberation army” occupies Galilee and attacks the Jewish old city of Jerusalem. In May 1948 the British mandate is abolished. The retreat of the British army and the cease of administration bring the land into anarchy.

May 14, 1948 the state of Israel is proclaimed by the Jewish National council (head: Ben Gurion); the attack of the Arabic League – interrupted through the UN mediation (June, July) – is beaten back (because of Israel predominance in the air); the Arab population flees; Jewish terrorists murder the un envoyee Count Bernadotte. Meanwhile 1948 101,000 immigrate to Israel. After the fights in Negev (conquest of Elath) two-sides ceasefire agreement (February-June 1949) is concluded: partition of Jerusalem, the Western Jordan land is given to Jordan, the Gaza stripe to Egypt; the front lines are fortified to the state frontier. The elections to the parliament (Knesset) bring the majority of the (Socialist) Mapei party and confirm prime minister David Ben Gurion (1948-63). 1949 Chaim Weizmann becomes a President (till 1952).

In the whole, after the 1878 years the Israel state was restored. It confirmed the Bible prophecies as well as the prediction of Isaac Newton, according to which it had to be in 1947. But is not a theocratic state, not a monarchy, but a modern democratic state, which does not control the whole of Palestine.

Questions:

1. What was the situation of the European Jews in this time?
2. Describe the history of Palestine in this time?
3. What were the grounds for the creation of state of Israel?

45. Islamic world in 1910-1950.

a) Albania in 1912-1950.

1912-23 unrest in Albania under Essad Pasha takes place. According to the Bukarest treaty (August 1913) Albania becomes an independent princedom (under Prince Wilhelm zu Wied, who is used by Essad Pasha). 1921 the frontiers of 1913 are determinated by the international conference of embassadors. Interior fight for power follows. January 1925 Ahmed Zogu becomes President (1895-1961) with extended full power. He becomes king 1928. Through the union of Tirana (1927) and a percentless loan (1932) the land becomes dependent from Italy. 1939 Albania is occupied, personal union with Italy. After the evacuation of the German forces (1944) the Colonel Enver Hoja (1908-90), chief of the Communist Party, builds a Soviet-friendly People´s Front government (1945). After the break with Tito he supports Stalin and gets Soviet economic help. It becomes a member of COMECON.

b) Turkey in 1910-1950.

Under Mohammed V (1909-18) the Joung Turks get the power in the Tripolis war and in the Balkan wars (1911-13). 1913 army reform is made under German leadership, fleet building with British help. 1914, August: German-Turkish defensive union is concluded, but it declares its weaponed neutrality (3.8.1914). In October 1914 Russian coast towns are shot with the formally Turkish German ships “Göben” and “Breslau”, therefore 2.-5.11.1914 allied (Russian, British and French) declaration of the war follows. In November,5 1914 British annexion of Cyprus follows. 18.12.1914 Egypt becomes a British protectorate. After the unsuccessful fight of the allied (25.4.1915 landing at Gallipoli, 9.1.1916 evacuation) the Dardanelles remain in Turk hand. After the successless Turkish attack at the Suez channel its east bank is occupied by the UK 1916. 1916 Sykes-Picot agreement is concluded: the former Turkish regions have to be divided between the UK (Mesopotamia, Palestine, Jordan) and France (Syria). After a Russian attack (January-April 1916) in Armenia and Persia the Turkish Armenia is reconquered (August 1916). In Mesopotamia the 1st attack of the Englishmen ends with heir capitulation in Kut el-Amara (April 1916), the second one with the conquest of Bagdad (March 1917). After the begin of Russian revolution the UK occupies Persia. After the break through of the Turkish front at Yaffa in the time of the Palestine battle (September 1918) the Turkish cabinett makes a firecease proposal to Wilson (14-15.10.1918). 6.10.1918 the Englishmen occupy Palestine and Syria. 30.10.1918 firecease of Mudros. In the war Turkey lost 325,000 people. 18,000 Jews were mobilized, from whom 1,000 died.

The national revolt (1918-20): After the firecease of Mudros the “Great fleet” of the allied comes into the Bosporus. 1918-23 as reaction for the allied occupation of Istanbul, the regions of Antalya and Konia by the Italians (1919), the regions around Smyrna by the Greeks (1919), Cilicia by the Frenchmen (1919), dangers from the Kurd separatist movement and the new founded state of Armenia (1919) the Turkish national movement under General Mustafa Kemal Pasha (1880?-1938) appears, which demands a Turkish national state in the national frontiers at the national congresses of Erzerum and Sivas (1919). A representative committee is elected. Ankara becomes a sit of the national movement. After the undersigning of the “National pact” with the last Ottomane parliament (1920) and resistence against Frenchmen and Greeks the allied occupation of Istanbul is strengthened. April 1920: the “Great National Assembly” is summoned in Ankara: the Ottomane government reacts with the death sentences again st Mustafa Kemal and his collaborators. In August, 10 1920 the peace treaty of Sèvres is concluded. According to it the sea straits are internationalized, East Thracia (with Gallipoli), the Aegean isles (besides Rhodos) and Smyrna (with surrounding) are given to Greece; Syria and Cilicia – to France; Iraq and Palestine – to the UK, wich also gets a protectorate over Arabia (Kingdom Hejas). Dodekanes and Rhodos are given to Italy. Armenia becomes independent. The coast of Adramyti till Adalya is an region of interest of Italy, Cyprus and Egypt – of the UK. Kurdistan receives autonomy. The army is restricted with 50,000 people. Mohammed VI (1918-22) and National assembly refuse to make the “provisory” ratification.

 The liberation of the Turkey (1920-22): in the east the Kâzim Karabekir´s causes Armenia to conclude the peace of Gümrü (1920). After the Soviet Russian occupation of the Armenian capital Erivan the Soviet Russia concludes a friendship treaty with the Turkey. According to the treaty of Kars (1921) between RSFSR, Azerbeijan, Armenian and Georgian SSR the Caucasus frontier is recognized. 1920-21 with terror and cruelty the Armenians are suppressed by the national Turks; thousands are killed, only few go to the emigration. In the West the Supreme War Council gives a “mandate” to restore the “order in Anatolia” to Greek prime minister Venizelos: occupation of Bursas (1920) and Adrianople (1920), the Greek army goes till Sakaria. 1921 battles at Inönü and at Sakaria (end of Greek attack). 1922 break through of Mustafa Kemal at Dumlupinar and entrance in Smyrna. In October 1922 firecease of Mudanya: East Thracia (Adrianople) is evacuated. In the South 1921 Ankara treaty: retreat of Frenchmen.

The republic (1923-45): After the liquidation of the sultanate ( November 1, 1922) the Lausanne peace is concluded (1923): the Turkey receives back East Thracia till Maritsa, the island Imbros and Tenedos, the region around Smyrna and West Armenia (given to Russia 1878). Demilitarisation of the sea straits (international commission). Liquidation of the capitulations (special rights for the Europeans) and refuse from reparations. Retreat of occupants. Ca. 1.35 mln. Greeks and 430,000 Turks are resettled. 1923-38 Mustafa Kemal (from 1935 Kemal Atatürk) is a President of the Turk republic. The sit of government is Ankara. The Republican People´s party (founded 1923) is an only party till 1946. Prerequisite for the reform (Tanzimat) is the removing of the religious Islam law from administration, constitution, justice and education (laicism). 1924 liquidation of Khalifate and closing of the clergy courts and 1925 dissolving of the Dervish orders take place. The foundation of law is the Swiss civil (1926), the Italian criminal (1926) and the Swiss obligation law (1926). 1928 all religious formulas are removed from the constitution. In education the Latin alphabet is introduced, the Arabian writing is prohibited (1928). The obligatory study of Arabic and Persian in the high schools is liquidated (1929). Foundation of new people´s, middle, professional, agriculture and high schools (1936: Ankara university). 1934 family names are introduced. In the foreign policy 1925 neutrality and non-attack pact with the USSR is concluded. 1930 friendship treaty with Greece is concluded. 1934 Balkan pact (Yugoslavia, Rumania, Bulgaria and the Turkey). 1936 sea straits conference of Montreaux: the Turkey gets right for the refortificaton of the sea straits; the relation to the USSR becomes more tensioned. The pact of Saadabad 1937 (Turkey, Iran, Afghanistan, Iraq) strengthens the relations to the states in East and West.

1938-50 Ismet Inönü is a second President of the Turkey. In his time a stronger democratisation begins: new parties are founded, religious education is allowed in the schools. In the economy the trade and the industry is built with state help. Railways and streets are built. The coming near to the Western powers (from 1930) causes to getting back of Alexandrette (Iskenderun) Sanjak in 1939 and to British-French-Turkish help pact. In the time of WWII the Turkey remains neutral, but it concludes the friendship with Germany 1941, keeping the obligations before the allied. 1945 war announcement to Germany. 1946 the USSR demands frontier regions (Kars, Ardahan) and revision of the sea straits treaties. 1947 US help treaty (weapons, credits), active Europe policy. 1946 Democratic party is founded.

In the whole, after the WWI Turkey lost the Arabic territories of the Near East and became a republic with mostly Turkish population (besides Kurds in the East).

c) Arabic countries of the Near East.

 The taking over of the European ideas of nation, freedom and self-determination strengthen the Arabic nationalism and the striving for national independence. The heterogene obligations of the UK make difficult a constructive solution of the post-war problems. 1916 treaty between the British supreme commissar McMahon and the sheriff Husein of Mecca (1858-1931), who supports the Englishmen after the British agreement for the independence of Arabia. At the San Remo conference (1920) the compromise between the UK and France was reached.

Syria: 1918-1920 Emir Feisal (1883-1933), proclaimed to the king of Syria by the national congress, is expelled after giving of Syrian mandate to France by the League of Nations (1919) and bloody fights. Syria is divided into the autonomous regions of Damascus, Aleppo, regions of Alawites and Druzes (1925 revolt). 1926 Lebanon is built. With the giving of Alexandrette Sanjak to the Turkey (1939) the French-Arabian relations are burdened. But evacuation of Syria by the Frenchmen does not take place. 1941 fights between Vichy troops and groups of the “Free France”, which commander-in-chief General Catroux, who promisses the indenpendence to the French mandate regions. Syria and the Lebanon become autonomous (April and December 1941). From 1944 Syria is in permanent mutinies and frontier conflicts with neghbor states.

Iraq: 1919 the British mandate territory Mesopotamia is established. The following heavy revolts are finished after the proclaiming of Emir Feisal to the king of Iraq (1921). Feisal, a war companion of the British colonel Thomas E. Lawrence (1888-1935), establishes a constitutional monarchy 1925. 1926 the Mosul treaty is concluded. Iraq gets the region, but the shares of the Iraq Petroleum Company are divided among an English (52,5%), an American (21,25%) and a French group of oil firmas (21,25%). S.C.Gulbenkian receives 5% for his activity as mediator. 1930 according to the British-Iraq treaty, the Iraq independence is recognized, the air bases are made for the Royal Air Force. 1932 Iraq is accepted into the League of Nations. 1933-39 king Ghasi I rules. 1937 Iraq undersigns the Saadabad treaty.

Transiordania: 1921 Abdallah ibn Husein (1882-1951, murdered) becomes Emir of Transiordania. 1923 Transiordania is separated from Palestine. As puffer state to Central Arabia the land becomes the closest union partner of the UK in the Near East. The Arabic legion under the British General Glubb Pasha is established.

Central Arabia: 1896-1924 Sheriff Husein of Mecca, the king of Hejaz (father of King Feisal and the Emir Abdallah), is in rivality to the king of Nejd, 1902-53 Abd el Aziz Ibn Saud (1880-1969). 1924 Husein is proclaimed to the Khaliph. Ibn Saud, representative of the Wahhabite movement, announces the war, which ends with the taking over of Mecca and Medina. Husein abdicates, his son Ali refuses from land and crown (1925). 1926 ibn Saud is proclaimed to the king of Hejaz and Nejd. The lands are united to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia 1932. 1934 war against Yemen takes place, which ends with the peace of Taif 1936-37.

 In the whole, after the WWI Arabic countries are established in the Near East. French and British mandate territories become independent finally after the WWII. 1945 the Arabic League is founded in Cairo.

d) Iran and Afghanistan in 1910-50.

Persia (Iran from 1935): After many coups d´état Riza Khan (1878-1944) becomes the hereditary Shah of Persia as Riza Shah Pehlewi (1925-41). He makes refors in the education, modernizes the agriculture and sanates the state budget. Plans to make nomades sedentary and to equalize between people and upper layer are unsuccessful. In foreign minister 1921 treaty with the RSFSR is concluded, which refuses from all Russian rights and concessions against the promiss of the Iranian neutrality. 1927 the capitulations are abolished. 1933 treaty with the Anglo-Persian (from 1935 Anglo-Iran) Oil Company is concluded: the region of concessions is restricted and the donations to the government are increased. 1937 Iran undersigns the Saadabad treaty. 1941 Soviet and British troops enter Iran. Riza Shah abdicates to the favor of his son Mohammed (1919-80). Protected by the Soviet occupation, the Communist Tudeh Party builds the autonomous governments in Azerbeijan and Kurdistan (Mahabad). 1943, 28.11-1.12, the Teheran conference of the allied (Roosevelt, Churchill, Stalin) takes place. 1946 retreat of the British troops, the Soviet units go back only after the UN call against oil concessions (not supported with parliament). The autonomous regions are reincorporated. 1949 Communist attempt to kill Mohammed Riza Shah Pehlevi takes place. Corruption, Islamic sects, social distance between uneducated people, unquiet intelligence and reactionary owners´´ layer of “200 families” make reforms difficult.

Afghanistan: After the murder of Emir Habib Ullah (1901-1919) his son Aman Ullah becomes Emir (1919-29). He begins the “Afghanian independence war” (3rd Afghanian war) against British India, which ends with the peace of Rawalpindi 1919. 1921 the Kabul treaty is concluded: the political independence is recognized by the UK. Aman Ullah is proclaimed to the king (1926). Social reforms are made in hurry and cause revolts, which lead to the king´s expelling. Calming of the land and moderate reforms are made under his successors Mohammed Nadir (1929-33) and Mohammed Zahir (from 1933). In the time of the last king slow modernization takes place, frontier regulations with the USSR (1946-48), after tensions also with Pakistan are made.

 In the whole, Shiite Iran and Sunnite Afghanistan remain independent and neutral in both world wars.

The Islamic world is in the state of Renaissance in this period (XIVth century from Hijra of Sunnites), some new states are built, but secularisation takes place in some countries.

Questions:

1. Describe the reforms in Turkey.
2. What were the main lines of development of Arabic countries in this time?
3. What is new in the history of Iranian-speaking countries in this time?

46. Africa in 1910-1950.

a) North Africa in 1910-1950.

North Africa: 1911 Tripolis is annexed. Therefore war against Turkey takes place 1911/12. The revolt of the Senussi and the attack into the Aegean Sea (Dodekanes) makes the war difficullt. 1912, according to the Lausanne peace, Libya becomes autonomous and is given to Italy de facto. To the inhabitants of the North African lands (the Italian colony Libya, the French protectorates Tunis and kingdom of Morocco as well the French department Algeria) the Islamic Arabic national conscience and the refuse from the uropean civilisation are common. Self-determination and equal rights are demanded by the Destur movement in Tunis. After in Morocco the revolt of the riff Kabyls (1925) under Abd el Krim leads to the unconditional capitulation and the Spanish-French Morocco agreement about the delimitation of the interest spheres, the national Morocco action committee, for all the Istiqlal party, pleads for a constitutional government and administration autonomy.

In September 1940 from Libya Italian attack against Egypt begins. In December 1940 the Englishmen begin successful counter-attack: Cyrenaica is lost (Tobruk and Benghasi are conquered in January – February 1941). Asked by Italy, the Xth German avion corps is moved to Sicily (fight with Malta). After the talks of Hitler with Mussolini (January 1941) the “German Africa corps” (commander in-chief General Erwin Rommel, 1891-1944, suicide) is established. 1941, March-April: Cyrenaica (except Tobruk) is reconquered. 1942 new German-Italian attack follows: the axis powers conquer Benghasi (29.1) and El Gazala (7.2), Tobruk capitulates. After the crossing of the Egyptian frontier (Marsa Matruk, 28.6) the march ahead remains in El-Alamein position because of the deficit of help (30.6). In Malta the “Enterprize Hercules” (April 1942) is given out after the German aviation attack at the island. In October 1942 counter-attack of the British army (“Lightfoot”) begins (commander-in-chief General-Lieutenant Bernard L. Montgomery): the axis powers lose the Cyrenaica (November). A second allied front is opened in North Africa with landing of American-British battle forces (November, “Torch”) under General Eisenhower in Morocco and Algeria. After initial resistence the French troops of the Vichy government go to the allied. Firecease of Admiral Darlan with the allied is concluded 12.11.1942. He builds a government, but is murdered. General Giraud becomes High Commissar in French Africa. Because French-German union is refused by prime minister Laval, German and Italian units descend in Tunis; the Vichy France is occupied (enterprize “Attila”). The Pétain´s government protests, but is powerless. At 27.11. German troops occupy the war haven Toulon (enterprize “Anton”): self-sinking of the French fleet. After the lose of Tripolitania, the defence of Mareth position to the south of Gabes and West Tunis the two-fronts war is ended with the capitulation of the “Army group Africa” (13.5.1943): 252,000 German and Italian soldiers are prisoners of war. North Africa and the Mediterranean are lost, the south flank is opened for the attack to the “fortress Europe”.

After the WWII in Morocco at the exploitation of the posphate, mangan and plumb ores the USA give a financial help and promiss the independence to the Sultan Ben Jussuf (1927-1961), which is demanded by the Istiqlal party, founded 1944. In Algeria the liberation movement MTLD (Messali Hadj; Ferhat Abbas) demands autonomy 1946, but “Algeria Frenchmen” make sabotage of the Algeria statut (parliamentary self-government) 1947 with election falsifications. Akhmed Ben Bella, Krim Belkassem (1912-70), Ben Khider etc. Organize the “Front de Líberation Nationale” (FLN); it fights the algerian national movement MNA. In Tunis the French government concedes to the pressure of Neo-Destur party, founded 1934 by Habib Burghiba. Libya is put under the UN tutorship.

Egypt: 18.12.1914 Egypt becomes a British protectorate. After 1918 the Wafd party, originated from the delegation, led by Saghlul Pasha (1860-1927) in London and in the piece conference, for the independence of Egypt. 1922 the UK proclaims Egypt to the independent kingdom, but preserves special rights: defence of Egypt, securing of the Suez channel zone, regulation of the Sudan question, troops stationing, foregn policy. 1917-26 Fuad I (Sultan, king from 1922) fights with the Wafd party, dissolves the parliament (1928) and rules like dictator. The talks about autonomy with the UK are unsuccessful at the begin. 1936 the constitution of 1923 is restaurated. 1936-52 Faruk I is a king. 1936 British-Egyptian treaty is concluded: Egypt becomes independent, but British troops are stationed in the channel zone for twenty years and the English-Egyptian condominium over the Sudan is renewed (after the treaty of 1899).

Abessinia: 1916-30 emperess Zauditu rules. Tafari Makonnen (1892-1975) is a regent. After the tensions with the emperess he takes the title of “Negus” (1928) and is crowned as Emperor Haile Selassie I 1930. After many frontier conflicts between Italian and Abessinian troops the Italian-Abessinian war begins in October 1935. Under the command of Marshal de Bono, later Badoglio two Italian armies invade from Somali and Erithrea. The war ends with the entrance of Italians in Addis-Abeba. 1936 Abessinia is annexed. Victor Emmanuel becomes an “Emperor of Ethiopia”. After the conquest of British and French Somali land through Italian troops British counter-attack begins: Italian and British Somali land as well as Erithrea are lost (1941). Addis Abeba is taken (6.4), Italy capitulates (16.5.1941). King Haile Selassie I returns.

In the whole, North Africa becomes a war theater in the WWII. After the war striving for independence grows.

b) Central and South Africa in 1910-1950.

After the WWI former German colonies are given to other countries. Tanganyika, parts of Kamerun and West Togo - to the UK, East Kamerun to France, Ruanda-Urundi – to Belgium as B-mandates, administrated as colonial possessions. The South African Union administrates the South West Africa as a part of its territory (C-mandate). The English, French, Portuguese and Belgian colonies are administrated by the governor, responsible only before the king or prime minister. African have no part in the government. “Indirect rule” (participation of Africans in the lower (justice) administration) takes place in the English colonies, “direct” rule (White) – Belgian, Portuguese and French colonies. In the French colonies there is a strong centralism and an attempt of the assimilation of the Africans through the liquidation of the tribe traditions. Assimilation attempts take part in the Portuguese colonies, which were declared to the parts of Portugal 1935. In the economy monopole companies are transformed or liquidated. New transport ways are built. Investitions improve the economic situation of the white colonies, but not of the African people (exception: inhabitants of the Sudan-Guinea zone). The education strivings of the Christian African seminaries, from the end of twenties of schools, later favored with the colleges of colonialists, bring some progress, but the political participation of African intellectuals is refused. The education process, connected with the wish for dignity and social security, favors the political emancipation.

Liberia: 1925 Liberia makes contract with the rubber society of Firestone; for the taken credits 1931 about the half of state income is given for percents. An exploration commission of the League of nations (1930) liquidates the compulsory work and the slave trade. 1931 the debt service is liquidated with the parliament, the economic upsurge begins.

The WWII raises the African self-conscience. After 1945 the political promises are fulfilled only partly. The French Union (1946) secures “equality of the rights and obligations” in the motherland and former colonies (article 107). The British government of Attlee initiates the constitution reform, so that African national movements emerge. Félix Houphouet-Boigny founds the African Democratic Assembly (RDA) 1946, in Guinea under Sekou Touré, in Mali under Modibo Keita, Léopold Sédar Senghor leads the Democratic Bloc of Senegal; 1949 Convention People’s Party (CPP) under Kwame Nkruma (1909-72) is founded.

South Africa: 1910 it becomes a dominion (South African Union) under the former Boer general Louis Botha (1862-1919). The politics is influenced with the race question and the opposition between the South African party of Botha and general Jan Christiaan Smuts (1870-1950, ruled 1919-1924), which pleads for a greater South Africa in the frames of the British Commonwealth, and the National party under general James Barry Munnick Hertzog (1866-1942, 1924-33), who strives for the political removal of England. According to the Westminster statute (1931) under the coalition government of Hertzog-Smuts (1934-39) their parties are united to the “United National South African party”; through the “Status of the Union Act” (1934) the goal of independence is reached. 1936 law about the representation of aborigines is accepted: “the aborigine council” has a consultative function. 1939 break of relations to Germany. After the election victory of the “National front” prime minister Daniel F.Malan (1948-54) initiates the race separation (apartheid) for the “protection” of three million of the White men (against 11 million of Bantus).

In the whole the most of Central and South Africa remain still under European colonial administration in this period. Only Liberia and South African Union are independent. The African people strive for the independence.

Questions:

1. Describe the history of the North Africa in this period.
2. What is new in the development of Central and South Africa in this period?

47. India and neighbor countries in 1910-1950.

a) India in 1910-1950.

The central government is moved to the Mogul state Delhi. 1916 Lucknow pact: Hindus and Muslims demand the autonomy together. The interior situation of India is not stabilized in WWI. In April 1919 in Amritsar British troops shoot in a people´s crowd (about 1000 dead and wounded). The Montagu-Chelmsford reforms (December 1919) introduce a division of rule in the provinces (“Dyarchy”, til 1935): some ressorts (“Reserved subjects”: policy, land tax etc.) are preserved to the British offices; others (“Transferred subjects”: agricuture, industry, education and health care) are administrated with Indian ministries. Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi (1869-1948), called “Mahatma” (Great soul) is on the top of the Indian liberation government, has big influence upon the National congress and leads a political fight for the self-government (svaraj) with the means of Old Indian mottoes satya (“truth”), non-violence (“ahimsa”) and chastity (“brachmacharya”). Symbols of the striving for independence are the “Khaddaz” (hand-spun, white cotton things) and the getting of salt at sea to break the English monopoly. The first “Satyagraha” campaign (1920-22) against collaboration with England and against constitution ends with the condemnation of Gandhi for six years of prison. But he is amnested 1924 and begins his fight for economic and social reforms (till 1926). His work helps to the 60 mln pariyas (“untouchable”). 1921-26 vice-king Reaing rules abdolutely without people´s representation. 1928 acception of the constitution project of Motilal Nehru (1861-1931) through the Congress and ultimatum to England: dominion status for India in a year. The 2nd “Satygraha” campaign (1930), in which Gandhi and ca. 60,000 nationalist are imprisoned, is stopped with the “Delhi pact” between Gandhi and Lord Irwin (vice-king from 1936): ceasing of the “civil unsubordination” against the liberation of the political convicts. After the 3rd “round table” conferences (1930-32) in London the campaign is continued (1932-34). 1935 Government of India Act: introduction of the dyarchy for the central government, autonomy for the province governments, but special rights of the vice-king and governors. After the elections of 1937, where the Congress party is a victor in 6 from 11 provinces, the new constitution has a full power. Burma is separated from India and receives a status of the crown colony. In the WWII the radical politics of Subha Chandra Bose (1897-1945), directed against England, is unsuccessful. Bose is connected with the Nazis, Gandhi leads the 3rd “Satyagraha” campaign (anti-war propaganda), supported by Jawaharlal Nehru (1889-1964). 1940 fight for the Pakistan plan of the Muslim league under Mohammed Ali Jinnah (1876-1947): organisation of the independent Muslim states. 1942 the UK proposes the dominion constitution for India after the war end through Sir Stafford Cripps (1889-1952). Gandhi reacts with the demand: “Englishmen, leave India!”

The British promisses, made in the war, are realized by the Labor government of Attlee. The Constituante and Indian transition government (1946) prepare the independence, which is announced in the Indian Independence Act (1947). Heavy crises: Hindu and Muslim massacres, flight and resettlement of the religious minorities. 1948 Gandhi is murdered. Indian Union (Bharat): 1947-64 prime minister and foreign minister Jawaharlal Nehru reorganizes the administration. The princes have to abdicate. 1948 incorporation of the Muslim princedoms Junagadh and Hydebarat. 1950 constitution of the Indian Union´s Republic is accepted: 27 union states with own government and parliaments, 6 territories, Sikkim as protectorate. In Kashmir Hindu volonteers and Afghanian tribes invade in the revolt of 1947 against the feudal princedoms, after massacres also India and Pakistan. The firecease of 1948, mediated with the UN, seals the partition. The minorities´ agreement between India and Pakistan (1950) does not protect before the new religious unrests. The British crown colony Ceylon gets the dominion status 1948 under prime minister D.S.Senayanake.

Indian culture continues to develop in this time. Rabindranat Tagore is a famous writer. Shri Aurobindo Ghosh (1872-1950) founds an “integral” (purna) Yoga and writes a poem “Savitri”. Russian painter and writer Nikolay Rerikh works in India and founds a teaching of “Agni-yoga”.

In the whole, after the WWI fight of India for independence becomes more intensive. After the WWII India gets the independence, but is divided into two parts: Hindu India and Muslim Pakistan (West and East). Besides it, the Buddhist Ceylon and Burma appear.

b) Other countries in 1910-50.

Tibet: after the proclamation of independence (1912) a Chinese attack is defeated in the time of WWI (1918). 1920 firecease with China. 1933 the 13th Dalai Lama dies. 1940 introduction of the 14th Dalai Lama follows. 1950 Tibet is occupied by the Communist China.

Siam, from 1939 Thailand: 1917 the kingdom enters the WWI at the side of the allied. 1920 it becomes a member of the League of nations. A moderate nationalism causes the liquidation of the exterritorial rights for the foreigners, the conclusion of new rade treaties with customs autonomy and the fight against the strong position of the Chinese in the economy. 1925-35 King Rama VII Projadhibok rules. 1932 violent coup d´état follows: introduction of the constitutional monarchy. The interior situation is disturbed with a military revolt and unsuccessful counter-revolt of the nobility (1933). Rama VII abdicates. 1935-46 Rama VIII Ananda Mahidon rules. Revision of the treaties with foreign government follows. The allied cannon prevent the closing of Burma strait (1940). After the sinking of the English battleships “Prince of Wales” and “Repulse” (12.12.1941) Japanese union with Thailand is concluded. Taking of the British support points Hongkong (25.12) and Singapore (15.2.1942); conquest of Burma (National China is cut from the allied help, April 1942). Danger to India. An Indian army in Burma is organized by the former President of National Congress Subha Chandra Bose. The independence of Burma is recognized by Japan 1943. 1944-45 Burma is reconquered with British, American and Chinese troops. Three Japanese armies are destroyed, the Burma strait is opened. After the war Thailand gives back the regions, occupied 1943-45. Autoritarian military governments suppress democratic opposition and Communist guerilla units. Foreign political closement to the USA (bases treaties) takes place. 1947 dictatorship under Marshal Phibul Songram (1897-1964), which is recognized by the king Bhumibol Adulyadej 1950.

In Burma the British government of Attlee promisses self-government to the Freedom League AFPFL (1944 founded in the fight against the Japanese). Nationalist kill Aung San and other AFPFL leaders. 1947 independence treaty of London. The socialist Union´s Republic of Burma (1948) under prime minister U Nu is in the civil war against Christian Karen, Communists and National Chinese soldiers, fled from China (1948-54).

In Malacca the population percentage (Malays 50, Chinese 40, Indians 10) makes difficult the state building. 9 sultanates and British crown colonies conclude the Malayan Union as British protectorate 1948. With use of British troops till 1954 there is a small war against communist guerilla fighters (Chinese).

Indonesia (Dutch India): 1918 the People´s Council is summoned as Dutch Indian parliament (60 deputies: 30 Indonesians, 25 Dutch, 5 other Asian members). The People´s Council becomes an advising organ at the law-giving (1925). 1927 the “Perserikatan National Indonesia” (PNI) is founded in Bandung under Achmed Sukarno (1901-1970). 1937 project of the 10 year plan for the self-administration of Indonesia (stopped by the Dutch government). 1940-41 Dutch-Japanese negotiations about the incorporation in the “East Asian prosperity sphere” are unsuccessful. 1942 Japanese occupation of Dutch India. Fight for Dutch India (11.1 till 8.3): occupation of Celebes, Borneo and Amboina (January). Landing at the coast of Sumatra. After the Japanese sea victories in the Makassar street (24-27.1) Timor (danger for Australia), Yava and the Sunda islands are occupied (27.2. till 1.3.), the Dutchmen capitulate (8.3). Japan recognizes the independence of Indonesia (1945). Guerilla war against Dutch troups under General Governor van Mook (1942-48) takes place. Achmed Sukarno announces the “five principles” of the national fight: belief in God, humanitarism, nationalism, democracy, social righteousness. 1945 the Indonesian Republic is proclaimed by Sukarno and Mohammed Hatta. Under Dutch protectorate in 1946 treaty of Linggadjati a union with the Republic of East Indonesia is built. At the pressure of the UN 1947-48 Dutch police actions in Yava are stopped and talks are taken. 1949 Round Table Conference in Haague: foundation of the United States of Indonesia in the frames of the Dutch Union under President Sukarno and prime minister Hatta.

Philippines: 1942 Japanese conquer Philippines (commander-in-chief of the Americans is Douglas MacArthur (1880-1964). After Japanese landings at Luzon and Mindanao Manila is taken (2.1), the island fortress Corregidor capitulates (6.5). A Japan-friendly government is built on Philippines. After the uniting with the forces of MacArthur and the sea battle around the Leyte gulf (October) Philippines are conquered back (October 1944 till February 1945): occupation of Manila (4.2.) and the whole Luzon (24.2). On the ground of American promiss of 1934 the independence announcement follows 1946. Further the strong influence of the USA (financial help, military treaties of 1946 and 1951), but corrupt wrong economy of autoritarian government under the Presidents Roxas and Quirino (1946-53).

Australia and Oceania: 1919 Australia receives New Guinea and Pacific islands to the south of equator as the mandates of the People´s League. Under the Conservative government a planful policy to strengthen the national economy is made. The export growth (wheat, butter, meat, cotton) and exploration of plumb and zink mines, bauxites ores, brown coal sources. The strong immigration, the foundation of new industries and the development of the agriculture is finished with the economic crisis. As consequence, export (for all of the agricultural products) becomes lower, the protective customs are established. In the 30-s Australia has a foreign policy close to the UK. After the recalling of the army obligation law (1929) the three years plan of army race is accepted 1934 . Tensions with Japan (immigration, export attack), against which also the export stop for iron and mangan ores is directed. 1939 war announcement to Germany. After the Japanese attack at pearl Harbor (7.12.1941) 10 and 20.12.1941 Japan conquers Guam and Wake, attacks Bismark Archipelago, New Guinea and the Salomones (January-March 1942), landng at the Aleutes (June 1942). 1942 battle at Corall Sea: end of Japanese attack to the South (7-8.5). The sea battle at the Midway isles (3-7.6., weakening of the Japanese marine with lose of four avion carriers) and the American landing at Guadalcanar (7.8) mean the begin of American-Australian counter-attack. The island is taken after the monthes long fight (8.2.1943). 1943 allied big attack in South-West Pacific (commander in-chief General MacArthur) begins. Landing at New Georgia (1.7), Vella-Lavella (15.8), New Guinea (4.9), Bougainville (1.11) and New Britain (15.12). Excluding of Rabaul (retreat of the Japanese fleet battle forces, March 1944). 1944 attack of American battle forces in Central Pacific (commander-in-chief Admiral Nimitz) after reconquest of Aleutes (May-August 1943): occupation of the Gilbert and Marshall isles (November 1943-March 1944), the Marian isles Saipan and Guam (June-Jule).

New Zealand: Autonomous from 1907, New Zealand has a period of permanent growth after 1919. Intensification of the agriculture through organisation of the milk shop economy. 1931 New Zealand receives a dominion status (definitely confirmed 1947). For all under the government of the Labor Party (1935-45) social reforms are made. Strong closement to th e British foreign policy. 1939 New Zealand enters in the war at the side of the UK.

In the whole, the countries of Indochina and Pacific region became a war theatre in the time of the WWII. After the war Burma, Malaya, Indonesia and Philippines became independent.

Questions:

1. Describe the fight of India for the independence.

1. Describe the history of Thailand in this time.
2. What were the main lines of Indonesian history in this time?
3. Describe the Australian and American war against the Japanese in Pacific.

48. Far East in 1910-1950.

a) China in 1911-1949.

1.China in 1911-1945.

1911 the Young Chinese revolution takes place to renovate China radically; Manju dynasty (young emperor Aisin Gyoro Pu Yi, 1906-67) abdicates (12.2.1912); Song Yatsen (1866-1925) proclaims republic in Nanjing, but retires 15.2.1912, giving the presidency to General Yuan Shikai (1859-1916) to get military support for the keeing of state unity. Despite it, the Outer Mongolia and Tibet proclaim independence. 1912 the Guomindan (National People´s Party) is built, which comes from the “swear brothership” of Song Yatsen. The murder of Song Chaojen causes the 2nd revolution in Nanjing (1913), which is suppressed by Yuan. 1915 China must accept “21 demand” of Japan. 1916 tries to proclaim himself to the emperor and is murdered. China loses the central government. 1916-26 wars of the warlords in Nordchina for Beijing: “Anfu party” is supported by Japan, “Zhili clique” and “Fengtian group” - by the Western parties. A government in Guanzhou is built, which elects Song Yatsen to Generalissimus of the Southern forces 1917, but Song Yatsen retreats (1918) and begins the reorganisation of the Guomindan. 1917 China enters the war in the hope of annullation of the “unequal treaties” and the Japanese demands as well as the reurn of the German lease region. China´s wishes are not fullfilled at the Versailles peace conference. Japan receives Tsingdao and German concessions in China 1919. The demonstration of Beijing students against the undersigning of the peace treaty. Begin of the “4th May movement”: retreat from Confucianism and taking over of the Western culture. 1920 Soviet Russia refuses from all rights and concessions in China. 1921 Communist Party of China is founded. Cheng Duxiu is a leader, Mao Tsedong (1893-1976) is a member of the Central Committee. Song Yatsen, 1921-25 president of the city in Guanzhou, is under the impression of the Russian revolution and the NEP and is ready for the mutual work of Guomindan and CPC. 1924 1st congress of Guomindan takes place. Song Yatsen´s “Three people´s teachings” are accepted as the political program of the party: unity of the people (nationalism), rights of the people (democracy), wellfare of the people (socialism). The Communists are accepted into Guomindan. Party is organized by Soviet adviser (Borodin) and the army after Soviet example (General Blücher). The Whampao military academy is founded (military leadership: Chang Kaishek, a son-in-law of Song Yatsen, 1887-1975; political leadership: Zhou Enlai, 1898-1976). 1925 Song Yatsen dies in Guanzhou.

1925 demonstrating students in Shanghai are shoot by the British police. The “30 May movement” causes the national revolution of 1925-27. 1926 campaign of the revolutionary army under Chang Kaishek against the military warlords in Central and North China. Hankou is taken in August and becomes a sit of the national government (November 1926), then Shanghai and Nanjing (March 1927). 1927 Chang Kaishek breaks with the CPC and liquidates Communists in Shanghai (connection of Chang Kaishek with banks, big merchants and anti-Communists Guomindan members). 1927-36 Guomindan rules. 1927 a national government is built in Nanjing: Communists are executed, peasants´ revolts are suppressed, Borodin and his co-workers return in the Soviet Union. At the VIth congress of CPC in Moscow (1928) Cheng Duxiu retires. 1928 Chang Kaishek´s march to the North ends with the uniting of China (without Manzhuria, Mongolia and Tibet) after the taking of Beijing. China becomes a one party state on the base of the “five powers” (executive, legislative, law, examination and control). From 1931 successes in the “period of educating government”: getting back of the foreign settlements, liquidation of exterritorial rights, removing of the interior customs. The Shanghai settlements and the Chinese sea customs remain under the USA and the UK, which support the new government. Land reform does not takes place. The traditional Confucian ideology is revived (1934), the military dictatorship is established (“Whampao officiers´ clique”). Supported with the peasants´ units (peasants were 85 percent of the Chinese population), the building of the Communist bases in Qianxi and Fuqian under Mao Tsedong and Zhu De is successful (the land owners are expropriated, the land is divided anew). In May 1928 a Red Army is formed in Hunan. After five unsuccessful campaigns of Chang Kaishek (1930-34) it comes to Jenan (Shanxi province) through the “Long march” (1934-35). 1935 Mao becomes a leader of the CPC. 1936 a headquarter of the CPC is made in Jenan under leadership of Mao Tsedong.

After the Mukden fall (1931), the separation of Manzhuria by Japan, the fights for Shanghai (1932), the occupation of Jehol region (1933) after the imprisonment of Chang Kaishek in Xian (1936) the firecease between Guomindan and CPC and recognizing of Chang Kaishek, which is liberated with the Zhou Enlai´s mediation, as leader in fight against Japan. The 1937 accident at the Marco Polo bridge at Bejing is the begin of the Japanese-Chinese war. Manifesto about the the cooperation between Guomindan and CPC (own troops – 7th Army and supremacy regions). The national government is moved to Chunqing (Xichuang province). 1940 the Japanese-friendly government under former Guomindan member Wang Qingwei is built in Nanjing. 1941-42 Vasiliy Chuikov is a Soviet military advisor of Chang Kaishek. The Soviet Union helps with weapons and air forces to China. 1943 the allied refuse from all rights from the “unequal treaties” to prevent a separate peace of Guomindan with Japan. In the war China lost 6.4 million soldiers and 5.4 million of civil population.

2. Short course of history of PRC.

History of modern China is interesting in many respects. China remains the biggest in the world socialist state (when the Soviet Union and the socialist lands of Western Europe already do not exist). In the last years it had many successes, becoming a second state in the world according to the general national product. Does it mean that the Chinese leadership made a real “perestroika” and transition to the market relations? Or PRC went some other way than USSR from the beginning? What is a future of socialism in China? We will try to ask these questions. History of modern China is divided in periods, like the history of Russia, and compared with the corresponding periods of the Soviet history.

 In official Chinese historiography the begin of modern history is the proclamation of People’s Republic of China (October 1, 1949). But even more important date is 1945 – the end of WWII (on Chinese territory – war with Japanese invaders). Therefore we begin to discuss the Chinese history from this year and divide it into 6 periods.

1. 1945-1957
2. 1958-1966
3. 1966-1976
4. 1976-1989
5. 1989-2002
6. 2002-2012.

1 period – 1945-1957.

This period can be divided in three sub-periods: 1. 1945-1949 2. 1949-52 3. 1953-57

1 sub-period – 1945-49 – period of the third civil war between Guomindan and CPC.

1945 Japan was defeated (also because the USSR entered in the war with it, asked by the western allies, in such a way breaking the pact about non-agression of 1941). After the destruction of common enemy the old inimity between Guomindan and CPC renewed. At the VIIth Congress of CPC (April 1945, the last VIth Congress took part in Moscow 1928) Mao Tsedong (who headed a party from 1935) demanded to create coalitionary government, headed by Guomindan. The talks about it took place, but they were not successful. Guomindan (founded 1912), like CPC (founded 1921), was a revolutionary party and accepted only one-party system. In reality in the country the oligarchy of “four families” with Chang Kaishek on the top was constituted, but some regions were controlled by Communists already from 1931. Besides it, in the general context of the beginning “cold war”, the USA supported Guomindan more and more, striving not to allow communists come to power in the biggest Asian country. Therefore efforts to create a coalitionary government, approved by the Political Consultative Council of China, had no success. The civil war in China is divided in two stages. At the first (1946-47) Guomindan had the overhand, at the second (1947-49) Communists could reach the change to their favor in the war, 1949 they took Beijing and Nanjing, 1950 – island of Hainan, 1951 Tibet (de facto independent from 1912). In the hands of Chang Kaishek only Taiwan was left, where the American troops were descended. Notice that the Soviet Union also supported Guomindan many years, 1945 it concluded a treaty with China. In the first years of the war with Japan USSR also gave a military assistance to Guomindan, V.I.Chuikov was a Soviet military adviser of Chang Kaishek (till 1942). In such a way, in difference to the East Europe (besides Albania), a victory of Communists in China was achieved with the own forces (and with seized American weapon), and not with the help of the victorious Red Army, which already 1945 has given Manzhuria (except Port-Arthur and Dalny) to Guomindan according to the treaty; this was probably one of the causes of the independent from the USSR course of Chinese (and Albania) communists on the world arena. 1949 at the 1st session of People’s Political Consultative Council of China the People’s Republic of China was proclaimed, which head became Mao Tsedong, a prime-minister and a foreign minister – Zhou Enlai. USSR was a first country, which recognized PRC. The civil war in China, which brought many human and economic losses and a giant inflation, is fully comparable with the civil war in Russia, which also followed after the world war (China was in the situation of the civil war almost the whole time after the fall of monarchy of 1911). Therefore in China 1949 is comparable not with 1917 in Russia, but with 1920-21, i.e. the end of civil war.

b) Other countries in 1910-50.

Mongolia: 1912 in the Outer Mongolia Bogd Khaan rules. After expelling of the White Guard Russians (Baron Ungern) with Soviet troops (1921) the Mongolian People´s Revolutionary party under Suhe Bator declares the independence of Mongolia. The monarchy continues to exist. 1924 the Mongolian People´s Republic is proclaimed. The North-West Mongolia becomes independent as Republic Uryankhai, later Tannu Tuva (1944 incorporation as autonomous republic in the USSR). Treaty with the Soviet Union is concluded 1946. Mongolia becomes a member of COCOM.

Korea: Chosen is annexed by Japan 1910. 8.8.1945 the Soviet army enters Manzhuria, then Korea. At the ground of the allied talks 1945 Korea is occupied by the Soviets and Americans. In the North Korea (mining, industry) the People´s Front committees appear, led by Communist exile Koreans; in South (agriculture) a US military government is established. At the foreign ministers´ conference in Moscow (December) agreements about a common Korean government are made; after the differences with the USSR the USA demand a UN commission to control free elections (1947), but its entrance to the North Korea is not allowed. In the South 1948 elections to the National Assembly are made; Syngman Rhee (1875-1965) becomes President of the Republic South Korea (August); in the North the People´s Republic North Korea (September) under prime minister Kim Il Sung. Both governments have pretensions for whole Korea, a UN resolution decides for South Korea. The Soviet and American troops go home.

Indochina: the northern part of Indochina is occupied (September 1940). In July 1941 French Indochina is occupied with Japan. After the revolt preparations 1945 the French Vichy troops are demilitarized by the Japanese (March); Vietnam and Kamboja become independent. At the Potsdam conference (July-August) the British-Chinese operation zones are established. Japanese capitulation and Chinese occupation of the Northern zone. The Communist party leader Ho Chi Minh (1894-1969), leader of the Vietminh (Liberation movement), founded 1941, proclaims the Democratic Republic Vietnam in Hanoi. The South zone is occupied by the UK. A French expedition corps fight Buddhist sects and Vietminh. 1946 the UK gives the administration to French colonial offices. The Chinese retreat is bought with the French promiss to refuse from all demands to China (South Chinese railway). Ho Chi Minh supports the return of French troops (March). Ho Chi Minh´s talks in Paris are sabotaged by the High commissar for Vietnam, Admiral d´Argenlieu, with the own foundation of Republic Cochinchina (June). French “Ultras” demand the military solving of the Vietnam problem. 1946-54 1st Indochina War takes place: French elite troops (Foreign legion, “Paras”) occupy the Delta of Mekong, but fight the Vietminh partisans of General Giap unsuccessfully. 1948 the alternative government of Exile King Bao Dai is powerless.

Japan.

1. The Taisho time (1912-26).

1912-26 Yoshihito (emperor´s name Taisho, 1879-1926) rules. 1913 Japan has 52 million of population (two times more than 1867). In the time of the WWI Japan increases war and trade marine; increase of the export and invading into the international economy follow. 1919 through the getting of Tsindao and German concessions in China as well as taking over of the German Pacific isles as mandates of the League of nations. Japan becomes a Pacific superpower and the third sea power of the world. 1920-22: economic crisis: the lower quality of Japan products leads to the lost of export markets. Foreign policy: 1918-22 Japan makes intervention in the Russian Far East, having occupied some territories. 1921-22 at the conference in Washington Japan has a diplomatic defeat. Through the immigration laws of the USA (excluding of Japanese immigrants) cooling of the Japanese-American relations. Closing to the USSR. 1925 Soviet-Japanese treaty: the Japanese evacuate North Sakhalin; acception of the Portsmouth peace through the USSR. The politics of Kiuro Shidekora (1872-1951) – refuse from the “21 demands” to China and non-violence – meliorates the Japanese image abroad, but is resisted by the military. Interior policy: the oligarchic rule of Genro is succeded by military, great concerns and bureaucracy as well as by the young generation, which pleads for a further liberalisation of the politic life and social reforms, but still does not have authority. The interior situation is not stabilized: 1921 murder of the prime minister Hara Kei (born 1865). 1923 earthquake of Tokio and Yokohama takes place. The government edits the “order to secure piece”. After the attempt to kill Hirohito and the introduction of general election right for men the interior political tensions become sharper, therefore the “Law to secure piece” is edited.

1. The Showa time (from 1926).

1926 Hirohito ascends to the throne (emperor´s name: Showa, from 1921 regent for the mentally ill Yoshihito). The interior situation remains complicated because of the following causes: 1.Fear for organized working class and intellectuals; therefore fight with the “dangerous ideas” with strong national education, censure and police state methods; 2. turn out from the parties, which are compromitted through finance scandals, bribes and their capitalist interests (1940 dissolving of parties and founding of a unity party); 3. economic results of the world economic crisis: the expansion expansion of Japan stops (inflation of yen, dumping) because of the import limitations and the tariff policy of the lands, damaged with the Japanese overpropose; therefore plan to create a big economic space (exploration of the export markets and ore sources); 4. growth of population (increase of the births); 5. anti-democratic activity of army and marine (attempts to kill liberal politicians and moderate officers); culmination is the military revolt in Tokio after the election win of Liberals (1936), which is suppressed; 6. growth of nationalism with the Shinto religion as ideological foundation (loyality of the subjects to the divine and untouchable emperor, missionary conscience). In the foreign policy: founded upon the nationalism, so called Tanaka memorandum of General Tanaka (prime minister 1927-29) of 1927 demands a “positive” expansion: domination of Asia through Japan. For all the military supports this expansion policy through provoked “incidents”: the incident of Mukden 1931 causes the occupation of Manzhuria and the foundation of state Manzhuguo (1934 empire). 1933 the Lytton report is accepted by the League of nations, which condemns lawless behavior of Japan in the Manzhuria. Japan quits the League of nations. After the occupation of the provinces Jehol and Chahar Japan tries to put autonomous governments in the Chinese north provinces. 1936 anti-Komintern pact is concluded. 1937-41 cabinett of the prime minister Prince Konoye Fumimaru (1891-1945, suicide), which attempt to control the army is unsuccessful. The incident at the Marco Polo bridge (shooting between Japanese and Chinese soldiers) at Beijing causes Chinese-Japanese war (1937-1945). Despite big military successes and general mobilisation of Japan (1938) China does not capitulates. 1938 Konoye proclaims a new order of East Asia. 1939 the trade treaty of 1911 is abolished by the USA (the import of war things – gasoline, broken metal etc.). It worsens the relations between the borth states. 1940 organisation of Japanese-friendly Chine counter-government under Wang Qingwei in Nanjing. Three powers pact is concluded. In October 1940 Japanese foreign minister Okawa meets with Molotov and Ribbentrop. He proposes to divide the world between the USA, Germany, Italy, the Soviet Union and Japan. The Soviet Union has to conquer Iran and India. Molotov rejects the plan, as answer Hitler accepts the plan “Barbarossa”. 1941 Japan concludes the non-attack pact with the USSR. Japan gets security in the north for the expansion in East Asia. 1941-1944 prime minister Hideki Tojo (1884-1948, executed), the chief of staff of Kuantung army and main representative of imperialism. After the retreat of Konoye, his reconciliation policy with the USA is unsuccessful, a new autoritarily governed cabinet is built. After the Pearl Harbor attack (1941) Japanese began attack in three directions (south, left and right). In half a year (1942) Japan rules territories with ca. 450 mill of population and reach sources (95 percent of world production of gummi, 90 percent of chinin, 70 percent of tin and rice). It has enough oil and important ores (bauxite, chrom ores etc.). But already 1945 (19.2) Americans land in Japan (Iwojima). The American attack is supported by air attacks at the Japanese cities. The US Air Force bombs Japanese industrial centers from Chinese and Pacific bases and gets air supremacy firm 1943. 1945 the nuclear bombings of Hiroshima (6.8) and Nagasaki (9.8) take place. The USSR declares the war 8.8.: the Soviet Army invades Manzhuria and Korea, the Kuriles and Sakhalin are occupied. 2.9.1945 Japan capitulates. In the war Japan lost 1.2 million soldiers and 0.6 mln civil population.

After the war American military government under General MacArthur is built (1945-50). The emperor denies his divine nature. The processes of war criminals are made, among them Tokio tribunal. Re-emigrants from Korea, Sakhalin, the Manzhuria and Pacific return home. Reparations are paid, the land possession is divided, democratisation takes place. 1949-54 the second cabinett of Joshida rules.

Questions:

1. Describe the fight of China between 1912 and 1949.
2. What were the main events in the history of neighbor countries in this time?
3. What were the main causes of the aggressive policy of Japan in this time?

Results of the XXIVth period.

It is a culmination of industrial society - a period of two world wars, in the first one about 10 mln. people were killed, in the second – about 50 mln. Some generations were born to die at the battle field. It looks like that civilization tries to kill itself, making two attempts of suicide. Already in the First World War the newest technical means of that time (air planes, tanks, submarines) and the chemical weapon were used. The preliminaries of the WWI were two Balkan wars, in result of which Turkey lost almost all possession on Balkans and Albania became independent. In this time (1911-12) the revolution in China takes place, soon the country is disintegrated, becoming the attractive pray for stronger states. All participants of the war use mighty chauvinist propaganda. II International is disintegrated. Already 1916 the people are tired from the war, 1917 the USA enters into the war, but revolutions in Russia take place and it leaves the war, concluding the separate peace with Germany in 1918. German Empire goes through the fifth period of its history (with intensive militarization) and has no time to consume the fruits of peace, because in November 1918 the revolution takes place there, opening the sixth period (1918-1933). Emperor Wilhelm II accuses social-democrats in everything and flees to the Netherlands. The post-war peace of Versaille (1919) takes out the colonies and a part of territory in Europe from Germany. Russia, involved into the civil war, also is privated from the fruits of victory (having lost three millions of lives), but the USA are strengthened, having profited from the war. In the East of Europe a row of states is created, among them Baltic states, Poland and the successors of the disintegrated Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire is disintegrated too. The League of Nations is created. In the whole the concluded peace does not resolve many controversies, which existed before the war, and even creates the new ones. Meanwhile in India the struggle for independence strengthens, China sinks into the brother fight, which is used by the Japanese. 20-s signify the exit from the crisis and some stability, which ended with a world economic crisis (1929-1933). Russia manages to avoid the disintegration, in the civil war (with 5 mln. victims) Bolsheviks win, the Soviet Union is created, which establishes relations with the defeated Germany, and the III International (1919), which exists till 1943. In the 30-s the threat of new war becomes real. Crisis odf democracy causes the establishes of Fascist regimes (which social doctrine of “class peace” is akin to the social-democratic) initially in the weak Italy (1922), then in Germany (1933, the 7th period till 1945), Portugal, Spain and the countries of Eastern Europe, meanwhile in the USSR the dictatorship of Stalin is established. In China Chang Kai-shek and Mao Tsedong fight for power, meanwhile Japanese occupy almost a half of China. Why the dictators’ regimes cannot unite in the fight with democratic ones? Molotov-Ribbentrop pact (1939) shows these tendencies. But also here the controversies between neighbors are stronger. As result, because of Poland the WWII begins, some leaders of which (Hitler and Churchill) took part already in the WWI. Germany unites almost whole Europe under its leadership without big problems, meanwhile Americans remain neutral overseas as in the WWI, but instead to attack Great Britain Hitler makes a suicide decision –attacks the USSR. The second sudden event of 1941 was attack of the Japanese upon the USA, now Americans have to fight seriously for the hegemony upon the Pacific. 1943 Italy is defeated, 1944 Germans understand that the war is lost (therefore the attempt to kill Hitler is made), 1945 Germany and Japan capitulate. At the order of USA President Truman the nuclear bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki are made, 1949 the USSR has also the nuclear weapon. As result, Europe is divided into two “camps” or spheres of influence - American and Soviet, Great Britain and France lose colonies, the state of Israel is created, in China Mao Tsedong wins, the people’s republic is established, the country is united. In the first period of the third macroperiod (1945-49) the defeated Germany is divided into four occupation zones, then in two states (FRG and DDR), 1949 the bloc of NATO – analogue of the old Entente – is created. League of Nations is succeded with the UNO, which is ineffective as well. The “hot wars” are succeded with the “cold one”, directed against the USSR and other socialist states. In the essence it is the same contradiction like before the First World War – between the capitalist “democratic” and dictatorian regimes (feudal and authoritarian are succeded with the “socialist” totalitarian regimes), meanwhile the Fascist dictatorships continue to exist in the some European countries (Spain, Portugal), which did not take part in the war, and in the Latin America, and feudal states still remain in the Asia. Both become the allies of the “democratic” West in the fight with Eastern “socialism”.

Questions:

1. What are the results of 24th period?

XXV (VII) period.

5th period of industrial society – 1950-1990 – period of social-imperialism.

49. America in 1950-1990.

a) North America in 1950-1990.

1.Canada in 1950-1990.

1945–1960

Prosperity returned to Canada during the Second World War and continued in the proceeding years, with the development of universal health care, old-age pensions, and veterans' pensions. The financial crisis of the Great Depression had led the Dominion of Newfoundland to relinquish responsible government in 1934 and become a crown colony ruled by a British governor. In 1948, the British government gave voters three Newfoundland Referendum choices: remaining a crown colony, returning to Dominion status (that is, independence), or joining Canada. Joining the United States was not made an option. After bitter debate Newfoundlanders voted to join Canada in 1949 as a province. The foreign policy of Canada during the Cold War was closely tied to that of the United States. Canada was a founding member of NATO (which Canada wanted to be a transatlantic economic and political union as well). In 1950 Canada sent combat troops to Korea during the Korean War as part of the United Nations forces. The federal government's desire to assert its territorial claims in the Arctic during the Cold War manifested with the High Arctic relocation, in which Inuit were moved from Nunavik (the northern third of Quebec) to barren Cornwallis Island; this project was later the subject of a long investigation by the Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples.In 1956, the United Nations responded to the Suez Crisis by convening a United Nations Emergency Force to supervise the withdrawal of invading forces. The peacekeeping force was initially conceptualized by Secretary of External Affairs and future Prime Minister Lester B. Pearson. Pearson was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1957 for his work in establishing the peacekeeping operation. Throughout the mid-1950s Louis St. Laurent (12th Prime Minister of Canada) and his successor John Diefenbaker attempted to create a new, highly advanced jet fighter, the Avro Arrow. The controversial aircraft was cancelled by Diefenbaker in 1959. Diefenbaker instead purchased the BOMARC missile defense system and American aircraft. In 1958 Canada established (with the United States) the North American Aerospace Defense Command (NORAD).

1960–1981

In the 1960s, what became known as the Quiet Revolution took place in Quebec, overthrowing the old establishment which centered on the Roman Catholic Archdiocese of Quebec and led to modernizing of the economy and society. Québécois nationalists demanded independence, and tensions rose until violence erupted during the 1970 October Crisis. In 1976 the Parti Québécois was elected to power in Quebec, with a nationalist vision that included securing French linguistic rights in the province and the pursuit of some form of sovereignty for Quebec. This culminated in the 1980 referendum in Quebec on the question of sovereignty-association, which was turned down by 59% of the voters. In 1965, Canada adopted the maple leaf flag, although not without considerable debate and misgivings among large number of English Canadians. The World's Fair titled Expo 67 came to Montreal, coinciding with the Canadian Centennial that year. The fair opened April 28, 1967, with the theme "Man and his World" and became the best attended of all BIE-sanctioned world expositions until that time.Legislative restrictions on Canadian immigration that had favoured British and other European immigrants were amended in the 1960s, opening the doors to immigrants from all parts of the world. While the 1950s had seen high levels of immigration from Britain, Ireland, Italy, and northern continental Europe, by the 1970s immigrants increasingly came from India, China, Vietnam, Jamaica and Haiti. Immigrants of all backgrounds tended to settle in the major urban centres, particularly Toronto, Montreal and Vancouver. During his long tenure in the office (1968–79, 1980–84), Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau made social and cultural change his political goals, including the pursuit of official bilingualism in Canada and plans for significant constitutional change.The west, particularly the petroleum-producing provinces like Alberta, opposed many of the policies emanating from central Canada, with the National Energy Program creating considerable antagonism and growing western alienation. Multiculturalism in Canada was adopted as the official policy of the Canadian government during the prime ministership of Pierre Trudeau.

1982–1992

In 1982, the Canada Act was passed by the British parliament and granted Royal Assent by Queen Elizabeth II on March 29, while the Constitution Act was passed by the Canadian parliament and granted Royal Assent by the Queen on April 17, thus patriating the Constitution of Canada. Previously, the constitution has existed only as an act passed of the British parliament, and was not even physically located in Canada, though it could not be altered without Canadian consent. At the same time, the Charter of Rights and Freedoms was added in place of the previous Bill of Rights. The patriation of the constitution was Trudeau's last major act as Prime Minister; he resigned in 1984.On June 23, 1985, Air India Flight 182 was destroyed above the Atlantic Ocean by a bomb on board exploding; all 329 on board were killed, of whom 280 were Canadian citizens. The Air India attack is the largest mass murder in Canadian history.The Progressive Conservative (PC) government of Brian Mulroney began efforts to gain Quebec's support for the Constitution Act 1982 and end western alienation. In 1987 the Meech Lake Accord talks began between the provincial and federal governments, seeking constitutional changes favourable to Quebec. The constitutional reform process under Prime Minister Mulroney culminated in the failure of the Charlottetown Accord which would have recognized Quebec as a "distinct society" but was rejected in 1992 by a narrow margin. Under Brian Mulroney, relations with the United States began to grow more closely integrated. In 1986, Canada and the U.S. signed the "Acid Rain Treaty" to reduce acid rain. In 1989, the federal government adopted the Free Trade Agreement with the United States despite significant animosity from the Canadian public who were concerned about the economic and cultural impacts of close integration with the United States. On July 11, 1990, the Oka Crisis land dispute began between the Mohawk people of Kanesatake and the adjoining town of Oka, Quebec. The dispute was the first of a number of well-publicized conflicts between First Nations and the Canadian government in the late 20th century. In August 1990, Canada was one of the first nations to condemn Iraq's invasion of Kuwait, and it quickly agreed to join the U.S.-led coalition. Canada deployed destroyers and later a CF-18 Hornet squadron with support personnel, as well as a field hospital to deal with casualties.

In the whole, the British Domininion becomes in fact independent and belongs to the "Big Seven".

2. USA in 1950-1990.

The Cold War begins (1945–1964)

Following World War II, the United States emerged as one of the two dominant superpowers, the USSR being the other. The U.S. Senate on a bipartisan vote approved U.S. participation in the United Nations (UN), which marked a turn away from the traditional isolationism of the U.S. and toward increased international involvement. The primary American goal of 1945–48 was to rescue Europe from the devastation of World War II and to contain the expansion of Communism, represented by the Soviet Union. The Truman Doctrine of 1947 provided military and economic aid to Greece and Turkey to counteract the threat of Communist expansion in the Balkans. In 1948, the United States replaced piecemeal financial aid programs with a comprehensive Marshall Plan, which pumped money into the economy of Western Europe, and removed trade barriers, while modernizing the managerial practices of businesses and governments. The Plan's $13 billion budget was in the context of a U.S. GDP of $258 billion in 1948, and was on top of $12 billion in American aid to Europe between the end of the war and the start of the Marshall Plan. Soviet head of state Joseph Stalin prevented his satellite states from participating, and from that point on Eastern Europe, with inefficient centralized economies, fell further and further behind Western Europe in terms of economic development and prosperity. In 1949, the United States, rejecting the long-standing policy of no military alliances in peacetime, formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) alliance, which continues into the 21st century. In response the Soviets formed the Warsaw Pact of communist states.

Just like in Berlin, the country of Korea was divided into sectors following World War II. Neither side would agree to reunite these halves of Korea, and they stayed divided. North Koreans sent some of their soldiers into South Korea and America responded, because they felt that another communist country in the region would be a very bad idea. A difficult war ensued, and it demonstrated how the country would fight against the growth of communism. Back in America, many were afraid of communists in the government. Joseph McCarthy headed the House Un-American Activities Committee and charged that there were communists in high positions with the famous quote 'Are you or have you ever been a member of the Communist Party?' Julius and Ethel Rosenberg were executed for allegedly stealing atomic bomb secrets in 1953. Dwight D Eisenhower, a respected and heroic figure, was elected President in 1952, reigning over a period of conservatism and anti-communist feelings. The time was extremely prosperous. It was also under Eisenhower that the Soviet Union and America began an arms race. In August 1949 the Soviets tested their first nuclear weapon, thereby escalating the risk of warfare. Indeed, the threat of mutually assured destruction prevented both powers from going too far, and resulted in proxy wars, especially in Korea and Vietnam, in which the two sides did not directly confront each other.Within the United States, the Cold War prompted concerns about Communist influence. The unexpected leapfrogging of American technology by the Soviets in 1957 with Sputnik, the first Earth satellite, began the Space Race, won by the Americans as Apollo 11 landed astronauts on the moon in 1969. The angst about the weaknesses of American education led to large-scale federal support for science education and research.In the decades after World War II, the United States became a global influence in economic, political, military, cultural, and technological affairs. Beginning in the 1950s, middle-class culture became obsessed with consumer goods. White Americans made up nearly 90% of the population in 1950.

In 1960, the charismatic politician John F. Kennedy was elected as the first and—thus far—only Roman Catholic President of the United States. The Kennedy family brought a new life and vigor to the atmosphere of the White House. His time in office was marked by such notable events as the acceleration of the United States' role in the Space Race; escalation of the American role in the Vietnam War; the Cuban missile crisis; the Bay of Pigs Invasion; the jailing of Martin Luther King, Jr. during the Birmingham campaign; and the appointment of his brother Robert F. Kennedy to his Cabinet as Attorney General. Kennedy was assassinated in Dallas, Texas, on November 22, 1963, leaving the nation in profound shock.

Climax of liberalism

The climax of liberalism came in the mid-1960s with the success of President Lyndon B. Johnson (1963–69) in securing congressional passage of his Great Society programs. They included civil rights, the end of segregation, Medicare, extension of welfare, federal aid to education at all levels, subsidies for the arts and humanities, environmental activism, and a series of programs designed to wipe out poverty. Johnson was rewarded with an electoral landslide in 1964 against conservative Barry Goldwater, which broke the decades-long control of Congress by the Conservative coalition. But the Republicans bounced back in 1966 and elected Richard Nixon in 1968. Nixon largely continued the New Deal and Great Society programs he inherited; conservative reaction would come with the election of Ronald Reagan in 1980. Meanwhile, the American people completed a great migration from farms into the cities and experienced a period of sustained economic expansion. Starting in the late 1950s, institutionalized racism across the United States, but especially in the South, was increasingly challenged by the growing Civil Rights movement. The activism of African-American leaders Rosa Parks and Martin Luther King, Jr. led to the Montgomery Bus Boycott, which launched the movement. For years African Americans would struggle with violence against them, but would achieve great steps towards equality with Supreme Court decisions, including Brown v. Board of Education and Loving v. Virginia, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Voting Rights Act of 1965, and the Fair Housing Act of 1968, which ended the Jim Crow laws that legalized racial segregation between Whites and Blacks. Martin Luther King, Jr., who had won the Nobel Peace Prize for his efforts to achieve equality of the races, was assassinated in 1968. Following his death others led the movement, most notably King's widow, Coretta Scott King, who was also active, like her husband, in the Opposition to the Vietnam War, and in the Women's Liberation Movement. Over the first nine months of 1967, 128 American cities suffered 164 riots. The late 1960s and early 1970s saw the rise and fall of Black Power, however the decade would ultimately bring about positive strides toward integration, especially in government service, sports, and entertainment. Native Americans turned to the courts to fight for their land rights. They held protests highlighting the federal government's failure to honor treaties. One of the most outspoken Native American groups was the American Indian Movement (AIM). In the 1960s, Cesar Chavez began organizing poorly paid Mexican-American farm workers in California. He led a five-year-long strike by grape pickers. Then Chavez formed the nation's first successful union of farm workers. It later became the United Farm Workers of America (UFW). A new consciousness of the inequality of American women began sweeping the nation, starting with the 1963 publication of Betty Friedan's best-seller, The Feminine Mystique, which explained how many housewives felt trapped and unfulfilled, assaulted American culture for its creation of the notion that women could only find fulfillment through their roles as wives, mothers, and keepers of the home, and argued that women were just as able as men to do every type of job. In 1966 Friedan and others established the National Organization for Women, or NOW, to act for women as the NAACP did for African Americans. Protests began, and the new Women's Liberation Movement grew in size and power, gained much media attention, and, by 1968, had replaced the Civil Rights Movement as the U.S.'s main social revolution. Marches, parades, rallies, boycotts, and pickets brought out thousands, sometimes millions, There were striking gains for women in medicine, law and business, while only a few were elected to office. The Movement was split into factions by political ideology early on, however (with NOW on the left, the Women's Equity Action League (WEAL) on the right, the National Women's Political Caucus (NWPC) in the center, and more radical groups formed by younger women on the far left). The proposed Equal Rights Amendment to the Constitution, passed by Congress in 1972 was defeated by a conservative coalition mobilized by Phyllis Schlafly. They argued that it degraded the position of the housewife, and made young women susceptible to the military draft. However, many federal laws (i.e. those equalizing pay, employment, education, employment opportunities, credit, ending pregnancy discrimination, and requiring NASA, the Military Academies, and other organizations to admit women), state laws (i.e. those ending spousal abuse and marital rape), Supreme Court rulings (i.e. ruling the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment applied to women), and state ERAs established women's equal status under the law, and social custom and consciousness began to change, accepting women's equality. The controversial issue of abortion, deemed by the Supreme Court as a fundamental right in Roe v. Wade (1973), is still a point of debate today.

The Counterculture Revolution and Cold War Détente (1964–1980)

Amid the Cold War, the United States entered the Vietnam War, whose growing unpopularity fed already existing social movements, including those among women, minorities and young people. President Lyndon B. Johnson's Great Society social programs and numerous rulings by the Warren Court added to the wide range of social reform during the 1960s and 1970s. Feminism and the environmental movement became political forces, and progress continued toward civil rights for all Americans. The Counterculture Revolution swept through the nation and much of the western world in the late sixties and early seventies, further dividing Americans in a "culture war" but also bringing forth more liberated social views.

Johnson was succeeded in 1969 by Republican Richard Nixon, who turned the war over to the South Vietnamese forces and ended American combat roles; he negotiated a peace treaty in 1973, secured the release of POWs and ended the draft. The war had cost the lives of 58,000 American troops. Nixon manipulated the fierce distrust between the Soviet Union and China to the advantage of the United States, achieving détente (cooperation) with both parties.

The Watergate scandal, involving Nixon's cover-up of his operatives break-in into the Democratic National Committee headquarters at the Watergate office complex destroyed his political base, sent many aides to prison, and forced Nixon's resignation on August 9, 1974. He was succeeded by Vice President Gerald Ford, who was subsequently helpless to prevent the conquest of South Vietnam when North Vietnam invaded in 1975. The OPEC oil embargo marked a long-term economic transition, as for the first time energy prices skyrocketed and American factories faced serious competition from foreign automobiles, clothing, electronics and consumer goods. By the late 1970s the economy suffered an energy crisis, slow economic growth, high unemployment, and very high inflation coupled with high interest rates (the term stagflation was coined). While economists agreed on the wisdom of deregulation, many of the New Deal era regulations were ended, as in transportation, banking and telecommunications.

Jimmy Carter, running as someone who was not a part of the Washington political establishment, was elected president in 1976. On the world stage, Carter brokered the Camp David Accords between Israel and Egypt. In 1979, Iranian students stormed the U.S. embassy in Tehran and took 66 Americans hostage, resulting in the Iran hostage crisis. With the hostage crisis and continuing stagflation, Carter lost the 1980 election to the Republican Ronald Reagan. On January 20, 1981, minutes after Carter's term in office ended, the remaining U.S. captives held at the U.S. embassy in Iran were released, ending the 444-day hostage crisis.

The end of the Cold War (1980–1991)

Ronald Reagan produced a major realignment with his 1980 and 1984 landslide elections. Reagan's economic policies (dubbed "Reaganomics") and the implementation of the Economic Recovery Tax Act of 1981 lowered income taxes from 70% to 28% over the course of seven years. Reagan continued to downsize government taxation and regulation. The U.S. experienced a recession in 1982 but the negative indicators reversed, as the inflation rate decreased from 11% to 2%, the unemployment rate decreased from 10.8% in December 1982 to 7.5% in November 1984,[150] and the economic growth rate increased from 4.5% to 7.2%.Reagan ordered a buildup of the U.S. military, incurring additional budget deficits. Reagan introduced a complicated missile defense system known as the Strategic Defense Initiative (dubbed "Star Wars" by opponents) in which, theoretically, the U.S. could shoot down missiles with laser systems in space. Though it was never fully developed or deployed, the Soviets were genuinely concerned about the possible effects of the program and became more willing to negotiate.Reagan's rollback policy of weakening Communist states in critical regions involved covert funding and assistance to anti-Communist resistance movements worldwide. Reagan's interventions against Grenada and Libya were popular in the U.S., though his backing of the Contra rebels was mired in the controversy over the Iran–Contra affair that revealed Reagan's poor management style. Reagan met four times with Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev, who ascended to power in 1985, and their summit conferences led to the signing of the Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces Treaty. Gorbachev tried to save Communism in the Soviet Union first by ending the expensive arms race with America,then by shedding the East European empire in 1989. In the Same year George Bush (Republican) was elected a new President of the USA and continued a Reagan's policy. The Soviet Union collapsed in 1991, ending the U.S.–Soviet Cold War.

In the whole, in the 5th period the USA remained the most developed capitalist country of the world. Its main opponent was the Soviet Union.

b) Latin America in 1950-1990.

In the postwar period, the expansion of communism became the greatest political issue for both the United States and governments in the region. The start of the Cold War forced governments to choose between the United States and the Soviet Union. Several socialist and communist insurgencies broke out in Latin America throughout the entire twentieth century, but the most successful one was in Cuba. The Cuban Revolution was led by Fidel Castro against the regime of Fulgencio Batista, who since 1933 was the principal autocrat in Cuba. Since the 1860s the Cuban economy had focused on the cultivation of sugar, of which 82% was sold in the American market by the twentieth century. Despite the repeal of the Platt Amendment, the United States still had considerable influence in Cuba, both in politics and in everyday life. In fact Cuba had a reputation of being the "brothel of the United States," a place where Americans could find all sorts of licit and illicit pleasures, provided they had the cash. Despite having the socially advanced constitution of 1940, Cuba was plagued with corruption and the interruption of constitutional rule by autocrats like Batista. Batista began his final turn as the head of the government in a 1952 coup. The coalition that formed under the revolutionaries hoped to restore the constitution, reestablish a democratic state and free Cuba from the American influence. The revolutionaries succeeded in toppling Batista on January 1, 1959. Castro, who initially declared himself as a non-socialist, initiated a program of agrarian reforms and nationalizations in May 1959, which alienated the Eisenhower administration (1953–1961) and resulted in the United States breaking of diplomatic relations, freezing Cuban assets in the United States and placing an embargo on the nation in 1960. The Kennedy administration (1961–1963) authorized the funding and support of an invasion of Cuba by exiles. The invasion failed and radicalized the revolutionary government's position. Cuba officially proclaimed itself socialist and openly became an ally of the Soviet Union. The military collaboration between Cuba and the Soviet Union, which included the placement of intercontinental ballistic missiles in Cuba precipitated the Cuban Missile Crisis of October 1962. Cuba has since been ruled by Castro's Communist Party of Cuba, although Castro himself formally stepped down as leader in 2008, to be replaced by his brother Raúl Castro. Cuba has been politically and economically isolated since the Revolution, but has gradually become more open to foreign commerce and travel.

Late 20th century military regimes and revolutions

By the 1970s, leftists had acquired a significant political influence which prompted the right-wing, ecclesiastical authorities and a large portion of each individual country's upper class to support coups d'état to avoid what they perceived as a communist threat. This was further fueled by Cuban and United States intervention which led to a political polarization. Most South American countries were in some periods ruled by military dictatorships that were supported by the United States of America. Around the 1970s, the regimes of the Southern Cone collaborated in Operation Condor killing many leftist dissidents, including some urban guerrillas. However, by the early 90's all countries had restored their democracies.

El Salvador: The armed forces of El Salvador consist of three branches. The Army is the biggest and Honduras accused it of violence towards them. In 1979 El Salvador experienced a long civil war.

Nicaragua: The man who had assassinated Sandino, General Somoza, who had seized power in a coup d’etat, began a brutal dictatorship that passed to his son, and his brother, and lasted 43 years. Somoza was overthrown by a rebel group, then Sandinista guerillas (name taken from Sandino) in 1979. They formed a new government. One of these Sandinistas was Daniel Ortega, who would go on to be a major figure for Nicaragua. In 1981, Reagan condemned Nicaragua for many reasons, one being supporting Cuba’s revolution. He, among other countries, authorized the training of anti-Sandinista guerillas, also called counter-revolutionaries. This was shortened to the term “Contras.” The Contras camped out in neighbouring Honduras and Costa Rica. Local anti-sandinistas joined these camps and thus guerilla warfare began, known as the Contra War. The foreign-funded Contras went to war with the Sandinistas throughout the 80s, resulting in deaths all across the country. Nicaragua in shambles from the never-ending corruption: many dead, many more displaced as refugees, uneducated, poor, and scared. There was no health care and no education system to speak of. Human Rights violations were country-wide, from kidnapping, to torture, to the burning of villages and more. These violations made international headlines and the foreign-funding was cut off, forcing the Contras to retreat and eventually disperse by the late 80s. Nicaragua limped through the 80s and 90s as various politicians, including Daniel Ortega from 1984-1990, tried, with some success but mostly failure and more corruption, to get the country on its feet.

Chile: To this day, Chile has a very close relationship with Germany, and still buys weapons from Germans. It is also supported by the Netherlands, Switzerland, the U.S., Israel, France and Spain. The Chilean army has become one of the most technologically advanced armies of the Americas. Failure to address the economic and social disparities and increasing political awareness of the less-affluent population, as well as indirect intervention and economic funding to the main political groups by both the KGB and the CIA, as part of the Cold War, led to a political polarization under Socialist President Salvador Allende which in turn resulted in the 11 September 1973 coup and the military dictatorship of General Augusto Pinochet, whose 17-year regime was responsible for numerous human rights violations and deep market-oriented economic reforms. In 1990, Chile made a peaceful transition to democracy.

Peru: Since the seizure of power by General Juan Velasco Alvarado, the voice of all armies, in Peru in 1968, the military regime has been arrogant and pompous as being nationalist and revolutionary. Two and a half years after seizure of power, General Juan Velasco Alvarado thought declarations have been followed by actions and the decision was that Peruvian military government was taken just one week after overthrow of President Fernando Belaunde Terry. The troops’ occupation in the northern was considered International Petroleum Company (IPC) plant. Since 1924, Peru was in conflict with Lima, the capital and the largest city of Peru. They have an agreement, formed in August 1968, to protect both of themselves. The National Police of Peru, classified as a part of the armed forces, trains and activities over more than 20 years and have produced all different kinds of military characteristics. It gives the appearance of a fourth military service with lands, sea and air capabilities and with 140,000 army man.

Argentina: The wealth was in the hands of a minority. Poverty grew and mass migration from the rural areas to the cities began which intensified the wealth gap. This was not tackled until a colonel by the name of Juan Domingo Peron came into power in 1946. He introduced new social welfare and economic plans to try and ease the pressure on the working classes. Although popular, Peron is known to have abused his power by using force to squash the free press and political debate. In 1955 a coup against Peron brought his reign to an end. He left to Spain and amazingly returned to power in 1973 when the then President, Hector Campora, resigned. However, Peron died soon after in 1974 and the country fell into a turbulent period of history that ended in 1976 when the military again took power. The new regime began a process called the Process of National Reorganisation. In reality the process was a bloody and violent organised silencing of all forms of opposition from left-wing guerrillas to intellectuals to writers to doctors. The “Dirty War” (Guerra Sucia) is estimated to have taken 30,000 lives.

In 1981, as a means of diverting attention from economic problems and general discontent, General Roberto Viola decided to invade the British island of The Falklands (Islas Malinas). The brief occupation brought brief nationalistic zeal but soon ended once British Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher sent in her troops which took only 74 days to regain the island. In 1983 Argentina elected Raul Alfonsin. He succeeded in many ways; solving territorial disputes with Chile, curbing inflation and even trying military officers for violating people’s human rights.

Questions:

1. Describe the main features of the interior policy of the USA after the WWII.

2. How the foreign political problems of the USA (war in Korea, Vietnam etc.) were connected with the interior policy of the country?

3. Describe the history of Cuba in this time.

50. Western Europe in 1950-1990.

1. Iberian countries in 1950-1990.

Portugal:

António Oliveira Salazar headed Portugal's Estado Novo from 1932 to 1968

From the 1940s to the 1960s, Portugal was a founding member of NATO, OECD and the European Free Trade Association (EFTA). Gradually, new economic development projects and relocation of mainland Portuguese citizens into the overseas provinces in Africa were initiated, with Angola and Mozambique, as the largest and richest overseas territories, being the main targets of those initiatives. These actions were used to affirm Portugal's status as a pluricontinental nation and not as a colonial empire.

After India attained independence in 1947, pro-Indian residents of Dadra and Nagar Haveli, with the support of the Indian government and the help of pro-independence organisations, invaded the territories of Dadra and Nagar Haveli from Portuguese rule in 1954. In 1961, São João Baptista de Ajudá's annexation by the Republic of Dahomey was the start of a process that led to the final dissolution of the centuries-old Portuguese Empire.

According to the census of 1921 São João Baptista de Ajudá had 5 inhabitants and, at the moment of the ultimatum by the Dahomey Government, it had only 2 inhabitants representing Portuguese Sovereignty. Another forcible retreat from overseas territories occurred in December 1961 when Portugal refused to relinquish the territories of Goa, Daman and Diu. As a result, the Portuguese army and navy were involved in armed conflict in its colony of Portuguese India against the Indian Armed Forces. The operations resulted in the defeat of the limited Portuguese defensive garrison, which was forced to surrender to a much larger military force. The outcome was the loss of the remaining Portuguese territories in the Indian subcontinent. The Portuguese regime refused to recognize Indian sovereignty over the annexed territories, which continued to be represented in Portugal's National Assembly until the military coup of 1974.

Also in the early 1960s, independence movements in the Portuguese overseas provinces of Angola, Mozambique and Guinea in Africa, resulted in the Portuguese Colonial War (1961–1974).

Revolution and colonial end

Throughout the colonial war period Portugal had to deal with increasing dissent, arms embargoes and other punitive sanctions imposed by most of the international community. However, the authoritarian and conservative Estado Novo regime, firstly installed and governed by António de Oliveira Salazar and from 1968 onwards led by Marcelo Caetano, tried to preserve a vast centuries-long intercontinental empire with a total area of 2,168,071 km2.

The Portuguese government and army successfully resisted the decolonization of its overseas territories until April 1974, when a bloodless left-wing military coup in Lisbon, known as the Carnation Revolution, led the way for the independence of the overseas territories in Africa and Asia, as well as for the restoration of democracy after two years of a transitional period known as PREC (Processo Revolucionário Em Curso). This period was characterized by social turmoil and power disputes between left- and right-wing political forces. The retreat from the overseas territories and the acceptance of its independence terms by Portuguese head representatives for overseas negotiations, which would create independent states in 1975, prompted a mass exodus of Portuguese citizens from Portugal's African territories (mostly from Portuguese Angola and Mozambique).

 The overseas provinces of Africa were granted independence after the revolution.

Over one million Portuguese refugees fled the former Portuguese provinces. Mário Soares and António de Almeida Santos were charged with organising the independence of Portugal's overseas territories. By 1975, all the Portuguese African territories were independent and Portugal held its first democratic elections in 50 years.

The country continued to be governed by a Junta de Salvação Nacional until the Portuguese legislative election of 1976. It was won by the Portuguese Socialist Party (PS) and Mário Soares, its leader, became Prime Minister of the 1st Constitutional Government on 23 July. Mário Soares would be Prime Minister from 1976 to 1978 and again from 1983 to 1985. In this capacity Soares tried to resume the economic growth and development record that had been achieved before the Carnation Revolution, during the last decade of the previous regime. He initiated the process of accession to the European Economic Community (EEC) by starting accession negotiations as early as 1977.

The country bounced between socialism and adherence to the neoliberal model. Land reform and nationalizations were enforced; the Portuguese Constitution (approved in 1976) was rewritten in order to accommodate socialist and communist principles. Until the constitutional revisions of 1982 and 1989, the constitution was a highly charged ideological document with numerous references to socialism, the rights of workers, and the desirability of a socialist economy. Portugal's economic situation after its transition to democracy, obliged the government to pursue International Monetary Fund (IMF)-monitored stabilization programs in 1977–78 and 1983–85.

European integration

When the Treaty of Lisbon was signed, the Portuguese Republic held the presidency for the European Council.

In 1986, Portugal joined the European Economic Community (EEC) that later became the European Union (EU). In the following years Portugal's economy progressed considerably as a result of EEC/EU structural and cohesion funds and Portuguese companies' easier access to foreign markets.

Spain:

After World War II Spain was politically and economically isolated, and was kept out of the United Nations. This changed in 1955, during the Cold War period, when it became strategically important for the U.S. to establish a military presence on the Iberian peninsula as a counter to any possible move by the Soviet Union into the Mediterranean basin. In the 1960s, Spain registered an unprecedented rate of economic growth in what became known as the Spanish miracle, which resumed the much interrupted transition towards a modern economy.

Post Franco

With Franco's death in November 1975, Juan Carlos succeeded to the position of King of Spain and head of state in accordance with the law. With the approval of the new Spanish Constitution of 1978 and the restoration of democracy, the State devolved much authority to the regions and created an internal organisation based on autonomous communities.

In the Basque Country, moderate Basque nationalism has coexisted with a radical nationalist movement led by the armed organisation ETA. The group was formed in 1959 during Franco's rule but has continued to wage its violent campaign even after the restoration of democracy and the return of a large measure of regional autonomy.

On 23 February 1981, rebel elements among the security forces seized the Cortes in an attempt to impose a military backed government. King Juan Carlos took personal command of the military and successfully ordered the coup plotters, via national television, to surrender.

On 30 May 1982 Spain joined NATO, following a referendum. That year the Spanish Socialist Workers Party (PSOE) came to power, the first left-wing government in 43 years. In 1986 Spain joined the European Community, which later became the European Union.

In the whole, the countries of Iberian Peninsula, led by dictators, became democratic in 70-s and members of the EU.

1. British Isles.

Ireland:

The link with the monarchy ceased with the passage of the Republic of Ireland Act 1948, which came into force on 18 April 1949 and declared that the state was a republic. Later, the Crown of Ireland Act was formally repealed in Ireland by the Statute Law Revision (Pre-Union Irish Statutes) Act, 1962. Ireland was technically a member of the British Commonwealth after independence until the declaration of a republic on 18 April 1949. At the time, a declaration of a republic terminated Commonwealth membership. This rule was changed 10 days after Ireland declared itself a republic, with the London Declaration of 28 April 1949. Ireland did not reapply when the rules were altered to permit republics to join.

Recent history

 In 1973 Ireland joined the EEC along with the United Kingdom and Denmark. The country signed the Lisbon Treaty in 2007.

Ireland became a member of the United Nations in December 1955, after previously being denied membership due to its neutral stance during the Second World War and not supporting the Allied cause. At the time, joining the UN involved a commitment to using force to deter aggression by one state against another if the UN thought it was necessary.

Interest towards membership of the European Economic Community developed in Ireland during the 1950s, with consideration also given to membership of the European Free Trade Area. As the United Kingdom intended on EEC membership, Ireland formally applied for membership in July 1961 due to the substantial economic linkages with the United Kingdom. However, the founding EEC members remained skeptical regarding Ireland's economic capacity, neutrality, and unattractive protectionist policy. Many Irish economists and politicians realised that economic policy reform was necessary. The prospect of EEC membership became doubtful in 1963 when French President General Charles de Gaulle stated that France opposed Britain's accession, which ceased negotiations with all other candidate countries. However, in 1969 his successor, George Pompidou, was not opposed to British and Irish membership. Negotiations began and in 1972 the Treaty of Accession was signed. A referendum held in 1972 confirmed Ireland's entry, and it finally succeeded in joining the EEC in 1973.

The economic crisis of the late 1970s was fueled by Fianna Fáil's budget, the abolition of the car tax, excessive borrowing, and global economic instability.

United Kingdom:

When Britain emerged victorious from World War II, the Labour Party under Clement Attlee came to power and created a comprehensive welfare state, with the establishment of the National Health Service, entitling free healthcare to all British citizens and other reforms included the introduction of old-age pensions, free education at all levels, sickness benefits and unemployment benefits, most of which was covered by the newly introduced national insurance, paid by all workers. The Bank of England, railways, heavy industry, coal mining and public utilities were all nationalised. During this time, British colonies such as India, Burma and Ceylon gained independence and Britain was a founding member of NATO in 1949.

1952 George VI died, Elisabeth II became a queen.

The Conservatives returned to power in 1951 (Winston Churchill 1951-55), accepting most of Labour's postwar reforms and presided over 13 years of economic stability. However the Suez crisis of 1956 helped lower Britain's reputation as a world power. Ghana, Malaya, Nigeria and Kenya were granted independence during this period. Labour returned to power under Harold Wilson in 1964 and oversaw a series of social reforms including the decriminalisation of homosexuality and abortion, the relaxing of divorce laws and the banning of capital punishment. Edward Heath returned the Conservatives to power from 1970 to 1974 and oversaw the decimalisation of British currency, the ascension of Britain to the European Economic Community and the height of the Troubles in Northern Ireland. In the wake of the oil crisis and a miner's strike, Heath introduced the three-day working week to conserve power.

Labour made a return to power in 1974 but a series of strikes carried out by trade unions over the winter of 1978/1979 (known as the Winter of Discontent) paralysed the country and as Labour lost its majority in parliament, a general election was called in 1979 which took Margaret Thatcher to power and began 18 years of Conservative government. Victory in the Falklands War (1982) and the government's strong opposition to trade unions helped lead the Conservative Party to another three terms in government. Thatcher initially pursued monetarist policies and went on to privatise many of Britain's nationalised companies such as BT Group, British gas plc, British Airways and British Steel. The controversial Community Charge (poll tax), used to fund local government attributed to Thatcher being ousted from her own party and replaced as Prime Minister by John Major in 1990.

In the whole, both Ireland and the UK were democratic countries, members of the EU. The UK was a nuclear power and an ally of the USA. North Ireland was a problem in this time.

1. Benelux countries.

As a response to the emerging reconstruction needs of post-war Europe, in February 1958 Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg launched an economic union at The Hague. It was a major achievement which reflected an idea of integration already developed in the twenty-year period between the world wars through a series of commercial initiatives. This was consolidated after the last conflict with the creation of a customs union in 1947. For countries such as those of the Benelux, which have small territories but are rich in valuable raw materials, inaugurating a form of closer cooperation was indeed the only way to gain influence at continental level.

Netherlands:

1948 – 1980 Juliana is a quuen (abdicated), from 1980 – Beatrix.

In 1949, Dutch troops occupied an area of 69 km² of the British zone of occupied Germany and annexed it. At that time, these areas were inhabited by almost 10,000 people.

After the war, the Dutch economy prospered by leaving behind an era of neutrality and gaining closer ties with neighbouring states. The Netherlands was one of the founding members of the Benelux (Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg) grouping, was among the twelve founding members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO), and was among the six founding members of the European Coal and Steel Community, which would evolve into the EEC (Common Market) and later the European Union.

The 1960s and 1970s were a time of great social and cultural change, such as rapid ontzuiling (literally: depillarisation), a term that describes the decay of the old divisions along class and religious lines. Youths, and students in particular, rejected traditional mores and pushed for change in matters such as women's rights, sexuality, disarmament and environmental issues.

Belgium:

After World War II, a general strike forced king Leopold III, who many viewed as collaborating with Germany during the war, to abdicate in 1951. Bauduin was a king from 1951 till 1993. The Belgian Congo gained independence in 1960 during the Congo Crisis; Ruanda-Urundi followed with its independence two years later. Belgium joined NATO as a founding member and formed the Benelux group of nations with the Netherlands and Luxembourg. Belgium became one of the six founding members of the European Coal and Steel Community in 1951 and of the European Atomic Energy Community and European Economic Community, established in 1957. The latter is now the European Union, for which Belgium hosts major administrations and institutions, including the European Commission, the Council of the European Union and the extraordinary and committee sessions of the European Parliament.

Since around 1970, the significant national Belgian political parties have split into distinct components that mainly represent the political and linguistic interests of these communities. The major parties in each community, though close to the political centre, belong to three main groups: Christian Democrats, Liberals, and Social Democrats. Further notable parties came into being well after the middle of last century, mainly around linguistic, nationalist, or environmental themes and recently smaller ones of some specific liberal nature.

 A string of Christian Democrat coalition governments ruled from 1958.

Luxemburg:

It became a founding member of the United Nations in 1946, and of NATO in 1949. In 1957, Luxembourg became one of the six founding countries of the European Economic Community (later the European Union). 1964 the Great Duchess Charlotte died, Jean (1964–2000) became a Great Duke.

In the whole, the Benelux countries became the core of the new Europe, remaining to be constitutional monarchies.

1. France in 1950-1990.

3rd cycle (1946-

1st period (1946-1958).

On 13 October 1946, a new constitution established the Fourth Republic. The Fourth Republic comprised under a parliamentary form of government controlled by a series of coalitions.

During the next 16 years the French Colonial Empire would disintegrate.

Israel was established in 1948, and France was one of the fiercest supporters of the Jewish state, supplying it with extensive weaponry it used during the 1948 Arab-Israeli War. The French Republic needed an alliance with Israel to secure the Suez Canal from potential threats in a context of decolonisation.

In Indochina the French government was facing the Viet Minh communist rebels and lost its Indochinese colonies during the First Indochina War in 1954 after the Battle of Dien Bien Phu. Vietnam was divided in two states while Cambodia and Laos were made independent. France left Indochina only to be replaced there by the United States, which would soon be engaged in the long Vietnam War.

In 1956 another crisis struck French colonies, this time in Egypt. The Suez Canal, having been built by the French government, belonged to the French Republic and was operated by the Compagnie universelle du canal maritime de Suez. Great Britain had bought the Egyptian share from Isma'il Pasha and was the second largest owner of the canal before the crisis. The Egyptian President Gamal Abdel Nasser nationalized the canal despite French and British opposition; he estimated a European answer was most unlikely to happen. Great Britain and France attacked Egypt and built an alliance with Israel against Nasser. Israel attacked from the east, Britain from Cyprus and France from Algeria. Egypt, the most powerful Arab state of the time, was defeated in a mere few days.

The Suez crisis caused an outcry of indignation in the entire Arab world and Saudi Arabia set an embargo on oil on France and Britain. The US President Dwight D. Eisenhower forced a ceasefire when he threatened to sell all American shares of British Pounds and to crash the British economy. The British forces were retired from the conflict and Israel, having seized interests in the Sinai region, withdrew soon leaving France alone in Egypt. Under stronger political pressures the French government ultimately evacuated its troops from Suez. This was a major political defeat for France and the American threats during the war were received with indignation by the French popular opinion. This led directly, and was used as a point, to the French withdrawal from the integrated military command of NATO in 1966. Another consequence of this was the French loss of geopolitical interests in the region; this meant an alliance with Israel was no longer of any use for French diplomacy.

In the whole, the first period (the 4th Republic) was a period of instability and external losses.

2nd period (1958-69).

General de Gaulle was elected president in 1958 and made the French Force de Frappe, the nuclear power, a priority of the French Defence. France then adopted the dissuasion du faible au fort doctrine which meant a Soviet attack on France would only bring total destruction to both sides.

The May 1958 seizure of power in Algiers by French army units and French settlers opposed to concessions in the face of Arab nationalist insurrection led to the fall of the French government and a presidential invitation to de Gaulle to form an emergency government to forestall the threat of civil war. The new constitution of the French Fifth Republic, introduced on 5 October 1958, gave greater powers to the presidency. Algeria became independent in 1962.

In 1965, in an occasion marking the first time in the 20th century that the people of France went to the polls to elect a president by direct ballot, de Gaulle won re-election with a 55% share of the vote, defeating François Mitterrand. 1965 France left the military organization of the NATO.

In May 1968 students revolted, with a variety of demands including educational, labor and governmental reforms, sexual and artistic freedom, and the end of the Vietnam War. The student protest in unruly movements quickly joined with labor, and mass strikes erupted. De Gaulle responded by calling a legislative election for 23 June, in which his UDR party increased their vote, and the protests faded away during the summer.

In the whole, General de Gaulle had tendencies to the authoritarian rule and kept good relations with the USSR. France became the nuclear power, but lost Algeria.

3rd period (1969-1981).

In April 1969, de Gaulle resigned following the defeat in a national referendum of government proposals for decentralization, through the creation of 21 regions with limited political powers. He was succeeded by the Gaullist Georges Pompidou (1969–74), who died during his term. Pompidou's succession pitted the Gaullists against the more classical conservatives who eventually won, headed by the Independent Republican Valéry Giscard d'Estaing (1974–81).

Social movements continued after May 1968. They included the occupation of the Lip factory in 1973, which led to an experience in workers' self-management, supported by the CFDT, the Unified Socialist Party (PSU) and all of the far-left movements. LIP workers participated to the Larzac demonstrations against the extension of a military camps (in which José Bové was present). Maoism and autonomism became quite popular in far-left movements, opposing both the Socialist Party and the Communist Party.

While France continues to revere its rich history and independence, French leaders increasingly tie the future of France to the continued development of the European Union (EU).

This period (post-Gaullist) was a period of the further development of the Fifth Republic, which had good relations with the USSR, in which the left forces were in the opposition.

4th period (1981-1995).

The 1972 Common Program between the Socialist Party (PS), the Communist Party (PCF) and the Left Radical Party (PRG) prepared the victory of the Left at the 1981 presidential election, during which for the first time in the Fifth Republic a left-wing candidate won. François Mitterrand, re-elected in 1988, followed a left-wing inspired social and economic program, formulated in the 110 Propositions for France electoral program. However, reforms came to a stop in 1983. Mitterrand's two terms were marked by two cohabitations, the first one in 1986-88 with Jacques Chirac as Prime minister. In 1990 France, led by François Mitterrand, joined the short lived Gulf War against Iraq, the French participation to this war would be called the Opération Daguet.

Mitterrand stressed the importance of European integration and advocated the ratification of the Maastricht Treaty on European economic and political union, which France's electorate narrowly approved in September 1992.

After the fall of the USSR and the end of the Cold War potential menaces to mainland France appeared considerably reduced. France began reducing its nuclear capacities.

However, despite the end of the cold war and the fact future conflicts would be fought away from home, there were still menaces against mainland France in the form of terrorism. In 1994 Air France Flight 8969 was hijacked by Islamic terrorists with the suspected intent to crash the plane over Paris. The hijacking was a failure for the terrorist group, known as the GIA after an intervention from the GIGN in Marseille, where the plane was grounded. More terrorist attacks would happen and these culminated into the 1995 Paris Metro bombing. Important leaders of the GIA in France fell afterward: Khaled Kelkal was killed in Lyon by the EPIGN and Rachid Ramda was arrested in London although it took ten years for the French justice to have him extradited.

The period of the Left rule was a period of the flourishment of the Fifth Republic.

In the whole, France in this time was a democratic country, a member of the EU and the NATO, a nuclear power, which had an independent from the USA policy in many aspects.

5.Nordic countries in 1950-1990.

The Nordic Passport Union includes Denmark, Faroe Islands, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden.

The Nordic Passport Union, created in 1954, and implemented on May 1, 1958, allows citizens of the Nordic countries: Denmark (Faroe Islands included since January 1, 1966, Greenland not included), Sweden, Norway (Svalbard, Jan Mayen, Bouvet Island and Queen Maud's Land not included), Finland and Iceland (since September 24, 1965) to cross approved border districts without carrying and having their passport checked. Other citizens can also travel between the Nordic countries' borders without having their passport checked, but still have to carry some sort of approved travel identification documents.

Iceland:

On 31 December 1943, the Danish-Icelandic Act of Union expired after 25 years. Beginning on 20 May 1944, Icelanders voted in a four-day plebiscite on whether to terminate the personal union with Denmark, abolish the monarchy, and establish a republic. The vote was 97% in favour of ending the union and 95% in favour of the new republican constitution. Iceland formally became a republic on 17 June 1944, with Sveinn Björnsson as its first president.

In 1946, the Allied occupation force left Iceland, which formally became a member of NATO on 30 March 1949, amid domestic controversy and riots. On 5 May 1951, a defence agreement was signed with the United States. American troops returned to Iceland, as the Iceland Defence Force, and remained throughout the Cold War.

Iceland had prospered during the war, and the immediate post-war period was followed by substantial economic growth, driven by industrialisation of the fishing industry and the Marshall Plan programme, through which Icelanders received by far the most aid per capita of any European country (at USD 209, with the war-ravaged Netherlands a distant second at USD 109). The 1970s were marked by the Cod Wars — several disputes with the United Kingdom over Iceland's extension of its fishing limits.

Iceland hosted a summit in Reykjavik in 1986 between United States President Ronald Reagan and Soviet Premier Mikhail Gorbachev, during which they took significant steps toward nuclear disarmament.

Norway:

From 1945 to 1962, the Labour Party held an absolute majority in the parliament. The government, led by prime minister Einar Gerhardsen, embarked on a program inspired by Keynesian economics, emphasizing state financed industrialization, cooperation between trade unions and employers' organizations. Many measures of state control of the economy imposed during the war were continued, although the rationing of dairy products was lifted in 1949, while price control and rationing of housing and cars continued as long as until 1960.

The wartime alliance with the United Kingdom and the United States was continued in the post-war years. Although pursuing the goal of a socialist economy, the Labour Party distanced itself from the communists (especially after the communists' seizure of power in Czechoslovakia in 1948), and strengthened its foreign policy and defence policy ties with the U.S. Norway received Marshall Plan aid from the United States starting in 1947, joined the OEEC one year later and became a founding member of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in 1949.

King Haakon VII died 1957. Olav V (1957-91) was his successor.

Around 1975, both the proportion and absolute number of workers in industry peaked. Since then labour intensive industries and services like factory mass production and shipping have largely been outsourced.

In 1969, the Phillips Petroleum Company discovered petroleum resources at the Ekofisk field west of Norway. In 1973, the Norwegian government founded the State oil company, Statoil. Oil production did not provide net income until the early 1980s because of the large capital investment that was required to establish the country's petroleum industry.

Norway was a founding member of the European Free Trade Area (EFTA). Two referendums on joining the European Union failed by narrow margins in 1972 and 1994. In 1981, a Conservative government led by Kåre Willoch replaced the Labour Party with a policy of stimulating the stagflated economy with tax cuts, economic liberalization, deregulation of markets, and measures to curb the record-high inflation (13.6% in 1981).

Denmark:

Frederick IX was a king from 1947 till 1972. His daughter Margrethe II rules from 1972.

In 1948, the Faroe Islands gained home rule.

Constitutional change in 1953 led to a single-chamber parliament elected by proportional representation, female accession to the Danish throne and Greenland becoming an integral part of Denmark. The Social Democrats (Denmark) led a string of coalition governments for most of the second half of the 20th century in a country generally known for its liberal traditions. Poul Schluter then became the first Danish prime minister from the Conservative People's Party (Denmark) in 1982, leading a centre-right coalition until 1993.

After the war, Denmark became one of the founding members of the United Nations and NATO, and in 1973, along with Britain and Ireland, joined the European Economic Community after a public referendum. Greenland gained home rule in 1979 . Neither Greenland nor the Faroe Islands are members of the European Union, the Faroese declined membership of the EEC in 1973 and Greenland in 1986, in both cases because of fisheries policies.

Sweden:

King Gustaf V died 1950. His son Gustaf VI Adolf ruled 1950-73. From 1973 Carl XVI Gustaf rules.

Sweden was officially a neutral country and remained outside NATO or Warsaw pact membership during the cold war, but privately Sweden's leadership had strong ties with the United States and other western governments.

 Following the war, Sweden took advantage of an intact industrial base, social stability and its natural resources to expand its industry to supply the rebuilding of Europe. Sweden was part of the Marshall Plan and participated in the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). During most of the post-war era, the country was governed by the Swedish Social Democratic Party largely in cooperation with trade unions and industry. The government actively pursued an internationally competitive manufacturing sector of primarily large corporations.

Sweden, like countries around the globe, entered a period of economic decline and upheaval following the oil embargoes of 1973–74 and 1978–79. In the 1980s pillars of Swedish industry were massively restructured. Shipbuilding was discontinued, wood pulp was integrated into modernized paper production, the steel industry was concentrated and specialized, and mechanical engineering was robotized.

Between 1970 and 1990 the overall tax burden rose by over 10%, and the growth was low compared to other countries in Western Europe. Eventually government began to spend over half of the country's gross domestic product. Sweden GDP per capita ranking declined during this time.

Finland:

The presidents were J. K. Paasikivi (1946–1956), Urho Kekkonen (1956–1982), Mauno Koivisto (1982–1994).

The treaties signed in 1947 and 1948 with the Soviet Union included Finnish obligations, restraints and reparations—as well as further Finnish territorial concessions begun in the Moscow Peace Treaty of 1940. As a result of the two wars, Finland was forced to cede most of Finnish Karelia, Salla and Petsamo, which amounted to 10% of its land area and 20% of its industrial capacity, including the ports of Vyborg (Viipuri) and ice-free Liinakhamari (Liinahamari). Almost the whole population, some 400,000 persons, fled these areas. Finland was never occupied by Soviet forces and retained its independence, however at a loss of about 93,000 soldiers killed, by proportion the third-highest loss rate in World War II.

Finland rejected Marshall aid, in apparent deference to Soviet desires. However, the United States provided secret development aid and helped the still non-communist Social Democratic Party in hopes of preserving Finland's independence. Establishing trade with the Western powers, such as the United Kingdom, and the reparations to the Soviet Union caused Finland to transform itself from a primarily agrarian economy to an industrialised one. For example, the Valmet corporation was founded to create materials for war reparations. Even after the reparations had been paid off, Finland—poor in certain resources necessary for an industrialized nation (such as iron and oil)—continued to trade with the Soviet Union in the framework of bilateral trade.

Cold War

In 1950, half of the Finnish workers were occupied in agriculture and a third lived in urban areas. The new jobs in manufacturing, services and trade quickly attracted people to the towns. The average number of births per woman declined from a baby boom peak of 3.5 in 1947 to 1.5 in 1973. When baby-boomers entered the workforce, the economy did not generate jobs fast enough, and hundreds of thousands emigrated to the more industrialized Sweden, with emigration peaking in 1969 and 1970. The 1952 Summer Olympics brought international visitors. Finland took part in trade liberalization in the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.

Urho Kekkonen, the eighth president of Finland.

Officially claiming to be neutral, Finland lay in the grey zone between the Western countries and the Soviet Union. The YYA Treaty (Finno-Soviet Pact of Friendship, Cooperation and Mutual Assistance) gave the Soviet Union some leverage in Finnish domestic politics. This was extensively exploited by president Urho Kekkonen against his opponents. He maintained an effective monopoly on Soviet relations from 1956 on, which was crucial for his continued popularity. In politics, there was a tendency of avoiding any policies and statements that could be interpreted as anti-Soviet. This phenomenon was given the name "Finlandization" by the German press.

Despite close relations with the Soviet Union, Finland remained a Western European market economy. Various industries benefited from trade privileges with the Soviets, which explains the widespread support that pro-Soviet policies enjoyed among business interests in Finland. Economic growth was rapid in the postwar era, and by 1975 Finland's GDP per capita was the 15th highest in the world. In the 1970s and 1980s, Finland built one of the most extensive welfare states in the world. Finland also negotiated with the EEC (a predecessor of the European Union) a treaty that mostly abolished customs duties towards the EEC starting from 1977, although Finland did not fully join. In 1981, president Urho Kekkonen's failing health forced him to retire after holding office for 25 years.

In the whole, the Nordic countries developed intensively in this time and were ruled by Social-Democrats. Three of them (Norway, Denmark, Sweden) were constitutional monarchies. The most of them belonged to the NATO, Finland was neutral.

6.German-speaking countries in 1950-1990.

East and West Germany:

After the surrender of Germany, the remaining German territory and Berlin were partitioned by the Allies into four military occupation zones. Together, these zones accepted more than 6.5 million of the ethnic Germans expelled from eastern areas.

The western sectors, controlled by France, the United Kingdom, and the United States, were merged on 23 May 1949 to form the Federal Republic of Germany (Bundesrepublik Deutschland); on 7 October 1949, the Soviet Zone became the German Democratic Republic (Deutsche Demokratische Republik, or DDR). They were informally known as "West Germany" and "East Germany". East Germany selected East Berlin as its capital, while West Germany chose Bonn as a provisional capital, to emphasise its stance that the two-state solution was an artificial and temporary status quo.

3rd stage

2nd period (1949-1961):

West Germany:

West Germany, established as a federal parliamentary republic with a "social market economy", was allied with the United States, the UK and France.Konrad Adenauer became its first chancellor (1949-1963). The country enjoyed prolonged economic growth beginning in the early 1950s (Wirtschaftswunder). West Germany joined NATO in 1955 and was a founding member of the European Economic Community in 1957.

 NATO membership

 With territories and frontiers that coincided largely with the ones of old Medieval East Francia and the 19th-century Napoleonic Confederation of the Rhine, the Federal Republic of Germany, founded on 23 May 1949, was declared "fully sovereign" on 5 May 1955. The former occupying Western troops remained on the ground, now as part of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), which West Germany joined on 9 May 1955, promising to rearm itself soon.

West Germany became a focus of the Cold War with its juxtaposition to East Germany, a member of the subsequently founded Warsaw Pact. The former capital, Berlin, had been divided into four sectors, with the Western Allies joining their sectors to form West Berlin, while the Soviets held East Berlin. West Berlin was completely surrounded by East German territory and had suffered a Soviet blockade in 1948–1949, which was overcome by the Berlin airlift.

The outbreak of the Korean War in June 1950 led to U.S. calls to rearm West Germany to help defend Western Europe from the perceived Soviet threat. Germany's partners in the Coal and Steel Community proposed to establish a European Defence Community (EDC), with an integrated army, navy and air force, composed of the armed forces of its member states. The West German military would be subject to complete EDC control, but the other EDC member states (Belgium, France, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands) would cooperate in the EDC while maintaining independent control of their own armed forces.

Though the EDC treaty was signed (May 1952), it never entered into force. France's Gaullists rejected it on the grounds that it threatened national sovereignty, and when the French National Assembly refused to ratify it (August 1954), the treaty died. The French Gaullists and communists had killed the French government's proposal. Other means then had to be found to allow West German rearmament. In response, at the London and Paris Conferences, the Brussels Treaty was modified to include West Germany, and to form the Western European Union (WEU). West Germany was to be permitted to rearm (an idea many Germans rejected), and have full sovereign control of its military, called the Bundeswehr. The WEU, however, would regulate the size of the armed forces permitted to each of its member states. Also, the German constitution prohibited any military action, except in case of an external attack against Germany or its allies (Bündnisfall). Also, Germans could reject military service on grounds of conscience, and serve for civil purposes instead.

The three Western Allies retained occupation powers in Berlin and certain responsibilities for Germany as a whole. Under the new arrangements, the Allies stationed troops within West Germany for NATO defense, pursuant to stationing and status-of-forces agreements. With the exception of 55,000 French troops, Allied forces were under NATO's joint defense command. (France withdrew from the collective military command structure of NATO in 1966.)

East Germany:

On 7 October 1949, the SED established the Deutsche Demokratische Republik (German Democratic Republic – GDR), based on a socialist political constitution establishing its control of the anti-fascist National Front of the German Democratic Republic (NF – Nationale Front der Deutschen Demokratischen Republik), an omnibus alliance of every party and mass organisation in East Germany. The NF was established to stand for election to the Volkskammer ("People's Chamber"), the East German parliament. The first (and only) President of the German Democratic Republic was Wilhelm Pieck. However, after 1950, the true ruler of East Germany was Walter Ulbricht, the First Secretary of the SED (1950-1971).

 On 16 June 1953, workers constructing the new Stalinallee boulevard in East Berlin rioted against a 10% production quota increase. Initially a labour protest, it soon included the general populace, who added their anti-Soviet discontent to the workers' civil disobedience, and on 17 June similar protests occurred throughout the GDR, with more than a million people striking in some 700 cities and towns. Fearing anti-communist counter-revolution on 18 June 1953, the government of the GDR enlisted the Soviet Occupation Forces to aid the Volkspolizei ("People's Police") in suppressing the rioters; some fifty people were killed and some 10,000 were jailed.

The poverty of East Germany induced by reparations provoked the Republikflucht ("flight from the republic") to West Germany, aggravating the emigration, continual since the 1940s, from the Soviet zone of Germany to the Western Allied zones, further weakening the GDR's economy. 1960 President Wilhelm Pick died. Western economic opportunities and lack of political freedom in East Germany induced a brain drain. In response, the GDR closed the Inner German Border, and on the night of 12–13 August 1961, East German soldiers began erecting the Berlin Wall which prevented anyone from escaping.

In the whole, in the 2nd period two German states entered two different military unions and have chosen two lines of development – capitalist and socialist.

3rd period (1961-1972)

West Germany:

Reforms during the 1960s

The grand old man of German postwar politics had to be dragged—almost literally—out of office in 1963. In 1959, it was time to elect a new President and Adenauer decided that he would place Erhard in this office. Erhard was not enthusiastic, and to everybody's surprise, Adenauer decided at the age of 83 that he would take on the position. His aim was apparently to remain in control of German politics for another ten years in spite of the growing mood for change, but when his advisers informed him just how limited the powers of the president were he quickly lost interest. An alternative candidate was needed and eventually the Minister of Agriculture, Heinrich Lübke took on the task and was duly elected.

In October 1962, the weekly news magazine Der Spiegel published an analysis of the West German military defence. The conclusion was that there were several weaknesses in the system. Ten days after publication, the offices of Spiegel in Hamburg were raided by the police and quantities of documents were seized. Chancellor Adenauer proclaimed in the Bundestag that the article was tantamount to high treason and that the authors would be prosecuted. The editor/owner of the magazine, Augstein spent some time in jail before the public outcry over the breaking of laws on freedom of the press became too loud to be ignored. The FDP members of Adenauer's cabinet resigned from the government, demanding the resignation of Franz Josef Strauss, Defence Minister, who had decidedly overstepped his competence during the crisis. Adenauer's own reputation was impaired and he announced that he would step down in the Fall of 1963. His successor was to be Ludwig Erhard. In the early sixties, the rate of economic growth slowed down significantly. In 1962, growth rate was 4.7% and the following year, 2.0%. After a brief recovery, the growth rate petered into a recession, with no growth in 1967.

In order to deal with this problem, a new coalition was formed. Kiesinger's 1966–1969 grand coalition was between West Germany's two largest parties, the CDU/CSU and the Social Democratic Party (SPD). This was important for the introduction of new emergency acts: the grand coalition gave the ruling parties the two-thirds majority of votes required for their ratification. These controversial acts allowed basic constitutional rights such as freedom of movement to be limited in case of a state of emergency.

Rudi Dutschke, student leader.

During the time leading up to the passing of the laws, there was fierce opposition to them, above all by the Free Democratic Party, the rising German student movement, a group calling itself Notstand der Demokratie ("Democracy in Crisis") and members of the Campaign against Nuclear Armament. A key event in the development of open democratic debate occurred in 1967, when the Shah of Persia visited West Berlin. Several thousand demonstrators gathered outside the Opera House where he was to attend a special performance. Supporters of the Shah (later known as Jubelperser), armed with staves and bricks attacked the protesters while the police stood by and watched. A demonstration in the centre was being forceably dispersed when a bystander named Benno Ohnesorg was shot in the head and killed by a plain clothed policeman. (It has now been established that the policeman, Kurras, was a paid spy of the east German security forces.) Protest demonstrations continued, and calls for more active opposition by some groups of students were made, which was declared by the press, especially the tabloid Bild-Zeitung newspaper, as a massive disruption to life in Berlin, in a massive campaign against the protesters. Protests against the US intervention in Vietnam, mingled with anger over the vigour with which demonstrations were repressed led to mounting militance among the students at the universities in Berlin. One of the most prominent campaigners was a young man from East Germany called Rudi Dutschke who also criticised the forms of capitalism that were to be seen in West Berlin. Just before Easter 1968, a young man tried to kill Dutschke as he bicycled to the student union, seriously injuring him. All over West Germany, thousands demonstrated against the Springer newspapers which were seen as the prime cause of the violence against students. Trucks carrying newspapers were set on fire and windows in office buildings broken.

In the wake of these demonstrations, in which the question of America's role in Vietnam began to play a bigger role, came a desire among the students to find out more about the role of the parent-generation in the Nazi era. The proceedings of the War Crimes Tribunal at Nuremberg had been widely publicised in Germany but until a new generation of teachers, educated with the findings of historical studies, could begin to reveal the truth about the war and the crimes committed in the name of the German people. One courageous attorney, Fritz Bauer patiently gathered evidence on the guards of the Auschwitz concentration camp and about twenty were put on trial in Frankfurt in 1963. Daily newspaper reports and visits by school classes to the proceedings revealed to the German public the nature of the concentration camp system and it became evident that the Shoah was of vastly greater dimensions than the German population had believed. The processes set in motion by the Auschwitz trial reverberated decades later.

The calling in question of the actions and policies of government led to a new climate of debate. The issues of emancipation, colonialism, environmentalism and grass roots democracy were discussed at all levels of society.

Anger over the treatment of demonstrators following the death of Benno Ohnesorg and the attack on Rudi Dutschke, coupled with growing frustration over the lack of success in achieving their aims led to growing militance among students and their supporters. In May 1968, three young people set fire to two department stores in Frankfurt, they were brought to trial and made very clear to the court that they regarded their action as a legitimate act in what they described as the 'struggle against imperialism.' The student movement began to split into different factions, ranging from the unattached liberals to the Maoists and supporters of direct action in every form—the anarchists. Several groups set as their objective the aim of radicalising the industrial workers and taking an example form activities in Italy of the Brigade Rosse, many students went to work in the factories, but with little or no success. The most notorious of the underground groups was the 'Baader-Meinhof Group', later known as the RAF which began by making bank raids to finance their activities and eventually went underground having killed a number of policemen, several bystanders and eventually two prominent West Germans, whom they had taken captive in order to force the release of prisoners sympathetic to their ideas.

Political developments

In the 1969 election, the SPD—headed by Willy Brandt—gained enough votes to form a coalition government with the FDP. Although Chancellor for only just over four years, Willy Brandt was one of the most popular politicians in the whole period. Brandt was a gifted speaker and the growth of the Social Democrats from there on was in no small part due to his personality. Brandt began a policy of rapprochement with West Germany's eastern neighbours, a policy opposed by the CDU. The issue of improving relations with Poland, Czechoslovakia and East Germany made for an increasingly aggressive tone in public debates but it was a huge step forward when Willy Brandt and the Foreign Minister, Walther Scheel (FDP) negotiated agreements with all three countries. (Moscow Agreement, August 1970, Warsaw Agreement, December 1970, Four Power Agreement over the status of West Berlin in 1971 and an agreement on relations between West and East Germany, signed in December 1972.) These agreements were the basis for a rapid improvement in the relations between east and west and led, in the long-term to the dismantlement of the Warsaw Treaty and the Soviet Unions control over Eastern Europe.

East Germany:

The Berlin Wall, built in 1961 to stop East Germans from escaping to West Germany, became a symbol of the Cold War, hence its fall in 1989, following democratic reforms in Poland and Hungary, became a symbol of the Fall of Communism, German Reunification and Die Wende.

 Initially, East Germany maintained that it was the only lawful government of Germany. However, from the 1960s onward, East Germany held itself out as a separate country from West Germany, and shared the legacy of the united German state of 1871–1945. West Germany, in contrast, claimed an exclusive mandate for all of Germany. From 1949 to the early 1970s, West Germany maintained that East Germany was an illegally constituted state. It argued that the GDR was a Soviet puppet regime and thus illegitimate. This position was shared by most of the world, until 1973. East Germany was recognized only by Communist countries and the Arab bloc, along with some "scattered sympathizers". According to the Hallstein Doctrine (1955), West Germany also did not diplomatically recognize any country – except the USSR – that recognized East German sovereignty.

But in the early 1970s, the Ostpolitik ("Eastern Policy") of "Change Through Rapprochement" of the pragmatic government of FRG Chancellor Willy Brandt, established normal diplomatic relations with the East Bloc states and the GDR. In the event, the Treaty of Moscow (August 1970), the Treaty of Warsaw (December 1970), the Four Power Agreement on Berlin (September 1971), the Transit Agreement (May 1972), and the Basic Treaty (December 1972) established normal relations between the Germanies, later allowing their integration to the United Nations. This also increased the number of countries recognizing East Germany to 55, including the US, UK and France, though the last three still refused to recognize East Berlin as the capital, and insisted on a specific provision in the UN resolution accepting the two Germanies into the UN to that affect.

In the whole, in the 3rd period both countries continued to develop under the protection of the USA and the USSR.

 4th period (1972-1982)

West Germany:

1972 the Olympic games in Munich took place. Two Germanies could still be in one command.

Chancellor Brandt was forced to resign in May 1974, after Günter Guillaume, a senior member of his staff, was uncovered as a spy for the East German intelligence service, the Stasi. Brandt's contributions to world peace led to his nomination for the Nobel Peace Prize in 1971.

Finance Minister Helmut Schmidt (SPD) formed a coalition and he served as Chancellor from 1974 to 1982. Hans-Dietrich Genscher, a leading FDP official, became Vice Chancellor and Foreign Minister. Schmidt, a strong supporter of the European Community (EC) and the Atlantic alliance, emphasized his commitment to "the political unification of Europe in partnership with the USA". 1975 FRG undersigned the Helsinki agreements.

In 1979,the environmental party, the Greens, reached the 5% limit required to obtain parliamentary seats in the Bremen provincial election. Also of great significance was the steady growth of a feminist movement in which women demonstrated for equal rights. Until 1979, a married woman had to have the permission of her husband if she wanted to take on a job or open a bank account. Parallel to this, a gay movement began to grow in the larger cities, especially in West Berlin, where homosexuality had been widely-accepted during the twenties in the Weimar Republic. The term 'Holocaust' for the systematic mass-murder of Jews first came into use in 1979, when an American mini-series with that name was shown on German television.

East Germany:

Head of State: Erich Honecker (1971–89)

In 1971, Soviet leader Leonid Brezhnev had Ulbricht removed; Erich Honecker replaced him. While the Ulbricht government had experimented with liberal reform, the Honecker government increased controls upon the populace of the GDR. The new government introduced a new East German Constitution which defined the German Democratic Republic as a "republic of workers and peasants" and hardly mentioned the word "German".

Tensions between East and West Germany were reduced in the early 1970s by Chancellor Willy Brandt's Ostpolitik.

GDR identity. 1975 both countries and the West Berlin undersigned the Helsinki agreements.

 From the beginning, the newly formed GDR tried to establish its own separate identity. Because of Marx's abhorrence of Prussia, the SED repudiated continuity between Prussia and the GDR. The SED destroyed the Junker manor houses, wrecked the Berlin city palace and removed the equestrian statue of Frederick the Great from East Berlin. Instead the SED focused on the progressive heritage of German history, including Thomas Müntzer's role in the German Peasants' War and the role played by the heroes of the class struggle during Prussia's industrialization. Nevertheless, as early as 1956 East Germany's Prussian heritage asserted itself in the NVA.

As a result of the Ninth Party Congress in May 1976, East Germany after 1976–77 considered its own history as the essence of German history, in which West Germany was only an episode. It laid claim to reformers such as Karl Freiherr vom Stein, Karl August von Hardenberg, Wilhelm von Humboldt, and Gerhard von Scharnhorst.

In the whole, it looked like the division of Germany is accepted internationally. West Germany was ruled by the left, East one built socialism.

5th period (1982-1990)

West Germany:

In the early 1980s, West Germany adopted the line of "two German states in one German nation". While it respected East Germany's independence, it formally maintained that the GDR was merely a de facto government within a single German nation of which the FRG was the sole representative. For instance, it did not treat East Germans as foreigners.

In October 1982, the SPD-FDP coalition fell apart when the FDP joined forces with the CDU/CSU to elect CDU Chairman Helmut Kohl as Chancellor in a Constructive Vote of No Confidence. Following national elections in March 1983, Kohl emerged in firm control of both the government and the CDU. The CDU/CSU fell just short of an absolute majority, due to the entry into the Bundestag of the Greens, who received 5.6% of the vote.

In January 1987, the Kohl-Genscher government was returned to office, but the FDP and the Greens gained at the expense of the larger parties. Kohl's CDU and its Bavarian sister party, the CSU, slipped from 48.8% of the vote in 1983 to 44.3%. The SPD fell to 37%; long-time SPD Chairman Brandt subsequently resigned in April 1987 and was succeeded by Hans-Jochen Vogel. The FDP's share rose from 7% to 9.1%, its best showing since 1980. The Greens' share rose to 8.3% from their 1983 share of 5.6%.

 East Germany:

Honecker continued to rule till 1989.

 In summer 1989, Hungary decided to dismantle the Iron Curtain and open the borders, causing the emigration of thousands of East Germans to West Germany via Hungary. This had devastating effects on the GDR, where regular mass demonstrations received increasing support. The East German authorities unexpectedly eased the border restrictions, allowing East German citizens to travel to the West; originally intended to help retain East Germany as a state, the opening of the border actually led to an acceleration of the Wende reform process. October the 3rd, 1989 the Berlin wall fell. Erich Honecker resigned October the 12th, 1989. Egon Krenz was his successor (till December the 3rd, 1989). Auf dem Sonderparteitag am 9. Dezember 1989 wurde Gysi mit 95,3 Prozent der Delegiertenstimmen zum Vorsitzenden der SED gewählt. Am 16. Dezember 1989 sprach er sich auf dem Sonderparteitag der SED-PDS für eine Zusammenarbeit beider deutscher Staaten bei voller Wahrung ihrer Souveränität aus. Im Winter 1989/90 war Gysi als Parteivorsitzender der damaligen SED-PDS daran beteiligt, dass die Partei nicht aufgelöst wurde und das Parteivermögen sowie Arbeitsplätze innerhalb der Partei erhalten blieben.

This culminated in the Two Plus Four Treaty a year later on 12 September 1990, under which the four occupying powers renounced their rights under the Instrument of Surrender, and Germany regained full sovereignty. This permitted German reunification on 3 October 1990, with the accession of the five re-established states of the former GDR (new states or "neue Länder").

In the whole, in the 5th period the right ruled in the West Germany. East Germany declined and ceased to exist.

Switzerland:

After the war, the Swiss government exported credits through the charitable fund known as the Schweizerspende and also donated to the Marshall Plan to help Europe's recovery, efforts that ultimately benefited the Swiss economy.

Women were granted the right to vote in the first Swiss cantons in 1959, at the federal level in 1971 and, after resistance, in the last canton Appenzell Innerrhoden (one of only two remaining Landsgemeinde) in 1990. After suffrage at the federal level, women quickly rose in political significance, with the first woman on the seven member Federal Council executive being Elisabeth Kopp, who served from 1984–1989,

Switzerland joined the Council of Europe in 1963. In 1979 areas from the canton of Bern attained independence from the Bernese, forming the new canton of Jura.

Austria:

Much like Germany, Austria was divided into British, French, Soviet and American zones and governed by the Allied Commission for Austria. As forecast in the Moscow Declaration in 1943, there was a subtle difference in the treatment of Austria by the Allies. The Austrian Government, consisting of Social Democrats, Conservatives and Communists (until 1947) and residing in Vienna, which was surrounded by the Soviet zone, was recognised by the Western Allies in October 1945 after some doubts that Renner could be Stalin's puppet. Thereby the creation of a separate Western Austrian government and the division of the country could be avoided. Austria, in general, was treated as though it had been originally invaded by Germany and liberated by the Allies.

On 15 May 1955, after talks which lasted for years and were influenced by the Cold War, Austria regained full independence by concluding the Austrian State Treaty with the Four Occupying Powers. On 26 October 1955, after all occupation troops had left, Austria declared its "permanent neutrality" by an act of parliament.

The political system of the Second Republic is based on the constitution of 1920 and 1929, which was reintroduced in 1945. The system came to be characterised by Proporz, meaning that most posts of political importance were split evenly between members of the Social Democrats and the People's Party. Interest group "chambers" with mandatory membership (e.g. for workers, business people, farmers) grew to considerable importance and were usually consulted in the legislative process, so that hardly any legislation was passed that did not reflect widespread consensus. Since 1945 a single-party government took place only in 1966–1970 (Conservatives) and 1970–1983 (Social Democrats). During all other legislative periods, either a grand coalition of Conservatives and Social Democrats or a "small coalition" (one of these two and a smaller party) ruled the country.

In the whole, in this time the German-speaking countries went different ways. FRG was capitalist and a member of the NATO, Switzerland and Austria – capitalist and neutral, GDR – socialist and a member of the Warsaw treaty. It was a consequence of the splitting of Europe in the time of the “cold war”.

6.Italy and neighbor countries in 1950-1990.

Italy:

Italy became a republic after a referendum held on 2 June 1946, a day celebrated since as Republic Day. This was also the first time that Italian women were entitled to vote. Victor Emmanuel III's son, Umberto II, was forced to abdicate and exiled. The Republican Constitution was approved on 1 January 1948. Under the Paris Peace Treaties of 1947, most of Venezia Giulia was lost to Yugoslavia and, later, the Free Territory of Trieste was divided between the two states.

Fears in the Italian electorate of a possible Communist takeover proved crucial for the first universal suffrage electoral outcome on 18 April 1948, when the Christian Democrats, under the leadership of Alcide De Gasperi, obtained a landslide victory. Consequently, in 1949 Italy became a member of NATO. The Marshall Plan helped to revive the Italian economy which, until the late 1960s, enjoyed a period of sustained economic growth commonly called the "Economic Miracle". In 1957, Italy was a founding member of the European Economic Community (EEC), which became the European Union (EU) in 1993.

 In 1957 Italy was among the EEC's six founding members. From the late 1960s until the early 1980s, the country experienced the Years of Lead, a period characterized by economic crisis (especially after the 1973 oil crisis), widespread social conflicts and terrorist massacres carried out by opposing extremist groups, with the alleged involvement of US intelligence. The Years of Lead culminated in the assassination of the Christian Democrat leader Aldo Moro in 1978 and in the Bologna railway station massacre in 1980, where 85 people died; these events had deeply affected the whole country.

In the 1980s, for the first time since 1945, two governments were led by non-Christian-Democrat premiers: one liberal (Giovanni Spadolini) and one socialist (Bettino Craxi); the Christian Democrats remained, however, the main government party. During Craxi's government, the economy recovered and Italy became the world's fifth largest industrial nation, gaining entry into the G7 Group. However, as a result of his spending policies, the Italian national debt skyrocketed during the Craxi era, soon passing 100% of the GDP.

Vatican:

Roman Popes:

260. Pius XII (Eugenio Pacelli) 1939-1958

Invoked papal infallibility in encyclical Munificentissimus Deus.

261. John XXIII (Angelo Giuseppe Roncalli) 1958-1963

Opened Second Vatican Council (1962); sometimes called "Good Pope John".

262. Paul VI (Giovanni Battista Montini), 1963-1978

The last pope to be crowned with the Papal Tiara. First pope to travel to the United States. Concluded Second Vatican Council (1965). Its main decision was to use the national languages in the liturgy.

263. John Paul I (Albino Luciani) 26 August 1978 – 28 September 1978

First pope to use 'the First' in regnal name. First pope with two names, for his two immediate predecessors.

264. John Paul II (Karol Józef Wojtyła) 1978-2005.

First Polish pope and first non-Italian pope in 455 years. Canonized more saints than all predecessors. Traveled extensively. Third longest known reign after Pius IX and St Peter. Recently beatified by Pope Benedict XVI.

In 1984, a new concordat between the Holy See and Italy modified certain provisions of the earlier treaty, including the position of Catholicism as the Italian state religion, a position given to it by a statute of 1848.

After the WWII, Vatican continued to influence the Catholics in all the world.

Malta:

Malta achieved its independence on 21 September 1964 (Independence Day) after intense negotiations with the United Kingdom, led by Maltese Prime Minister George Borg Olivier. Under its 1964 constitution, Malta initially retained Queen Elizabeth II as Queen of Malta and thus Head of State, with a Governor-General exercising executive authority on her behalf. In 1971, the Malta Labour Party led by Dom Mintoff won the General Elections, resulting in Malta declaring itself a republic on 13 December 1974 (Republic Day) within the Commonwealth, with the President as head of state. A defence agreement signed soon after independence (and re-negotiated in 1972) expired on 31 March 1979.

Malta adopted a policy of neutrality in 1980. In 1989, Malta was the venue of a summit between US President George H.W. Bush and Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev, their first face-to-face encounter, which signalled the end of the Cold War.

In the whole, Italy was one of the biggest economic powers of the Europe and the world (“big seven”).

1. Central European states.

Poland:

At the insistence of Joseph Stalin, the Yalta Conference sanctioned the formation of a new Polish provisional and pro-Communist coalition government in Moscow, which ignored the Polish government-in-exile based in London; a move which angered many Poles who considered it a betrayal by the Allies. In 1944, Stalin had made guarantees to Churchill and Roosevelt that he would maintain Poland's sovereignty and allow democratic elections to take place; however, upon achieving victory in 1945, the occupying Soviet authorities organised an election which constituted nothing more than a sham and was ultimately used to claim the 'legitimacy' of Soviet hegemony over Polish affairs. The Soviet Union instituted a new communist government in Poland, analogous to much of the rest of the Eastern Bloc. As elsewhere in Communist Europe the Soviet occupation of Poland met with armed resistance from the outset which continued into the fifties.

Despite widespread objections, the new Polish government accepted the Soviet annexation of the pre-war eastern regions of Poland[44] (in particular the cities of Wilno and Lwów) and agreed to the permanent garrisoning of Red Army units on Poland's territory. Military alignment within the Warsaw Pact throughout the Cold War came about as a direct result of this change in Poland's political culture and in the European scene came to characterise the full-fledged integration of Poland into the brotherhood of communist nations.

The People's Republic of Poland (Polska Rzeczpospolita Ludowa) was officially proclaimed in 1952. In 1956 after the death of Bolesław Bierut, the régime of Władysław Gomułka became temporarily more liberal, freeing many people from prison and expanding some personal freedoms. A similar situation repeated itself in the 1970s under Edward Gierek, but most of the time persecution of anti-communist opposition groups persisted. Despite this, Poland was at the time considered to be one of the least oppressive states of the Soviet Bloc.

Labour turmoil in 1980 led to the formation of the independent trade union "Solidarity" ("Solidarność"), which over time became a political force. Despite persecution and imposition of martial law by General Wojciech Jaruzelski in 1981, it eroded the dominance of the Communist Party and by 1989 had triumphed in Poland's first partially free and democratic parliamentary elections since the end of the Second World War. Lech Wałęsa, a Solidarity candidate, eventually won the presidency in 1990. The Solidarity movement heralded the collapse of communist regimes and parties across Europe.

Czechoslovakia:

After World War II, pre-war Czechoslovakia was re-established, with the exception of Subcarpathian Ruthenia, which was annexed by the Soviet Union and incorporated into the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic. The Beneš decrees were promulgated concerning ethnic Germans (see Potsdam Agreement) and ethnic Hungarians. Under the decrees, citizenship was abrogated for people of German and Hungarian ethnic origin, who had accepted German or Hungarian citizenship during the occupations. In 1948, this provision was cancelled for the Hungarians, but only partially for the Germans. The government then confiscated the property of the Germans and expelled about 90% of the ethnic German population, over 2 million people. Those who remained were collectively accused of supporting the Nazis after the Munich Agreement, as 97.32% of Sudeten Germans voted for the NSDAP in the December 1938 elections. Almost every decree explicitly stated that the sanctions did not apply to antifascists. Some 250,000 Germans, many married to Czechs, some antifascists, and also those required for the post-war reconstruction of the country, remained in Czechoslovakia. The Beneš Decrees still cause controversy among nationalist groups in the Czech Republic, Germany, Austria and Hungary.

Carpathian Ruthenia was occupied by (and in June 1945 formally ceded to) the Soviet Union. In the 1946 parliamentary election, the Communist Party of Czechoslovakia was the winner in the Czech lands, and the Democratic Party won in Slovakia. In February 1948 the Communists seized power. Although they would maintain the fiction of political pluralism through the existence of the National Front, except for a short period in the late 1960s (the Prague Spring) the country was characterised by the absence of liberal democracy. While its economy remained more advanced than those of its neighbours in Eastern Europe, Czechoslovakia grew increasingly economically weak relative to Western Europe.

 Leaders of the Communist Party were: Klement Gottwald (1929–1953), Antonín Novotny (1953–1968),

Alexander Dubček (1968–1969), Gustáv Husák (1969–1987), Miloš Jakeš (1987 - November 24, 1989),

Karel Urbánek (November 25 - December 20, 1989), Ladislav Adamec (1989–1990) Chairman, Vasil Mohorita (1989–1990) First Secretary.

Czechoslovakia in 1969-89.

In 1968, when the reformer Alexander Dubček was appointed to the key post of First Secretary of the Czechoslovak Communist Party, there was a brief period of liberalization known as the Prague Spring. In response, after failing to persuade the Czechoslovak leaders to change course, five other Eastern Bloc members of the Warsaw Pact invaded. Soviet tanks rolled into Czechoslovakia on the night of 20–21 August 1968. The General Secretary of the Soviet Communist Party Leonid Brezhnev viewed this intervention as vital to the preservation of the Soviet, socialist system and vowed to intervene in any state that sought to replace Marxism-Leninism with capitalism. In the week after the invasion there was a spontaneous campaign of civil resistance against the occupation. This resistance involved a wide range of acts of non-cooperation and defiance: this was followed by a period in which the Czechoslovak Communist Party leadership, having been forced in Moscow to make concessions to the Soviet Union, gradually put the brakes on their earlier liberal policies.[15] In April 1969 Dubček was finally dismissed from the First Secretaryship of the Czechoslovak Communist Party. Meanwhile, one plank of the reform programme had been carried out: in 1968-9, Czechoslovakia was turned into a federation of the Czech Socialist Republic and Slovak Socialist Republic. The theory was that under the federation, social and economic inequities between the Czech and Slovak halves of the state would be largely eliminated. A number of ministries, such as education, now became two formally equal bodies in the two formally equal republics. However, the centralised political control by the Czechoslovak Communist Party severely limited the effects of federalisation.

The 1970s saw the rise of the dissident movement in Czechoslovakia, represented (among others) by Václav Havel. The movement sought greater political participation and expression in the face of official disapproval, manifested in limitations on work activities, which went as far as a ban on professional employment, the refusal of higher education for the dissidents' children, police harassment and prison.

In 1989, the Velvet Revolution restored democracy. This occurred at around the same time as the fall of communism in Romania, Bulgaria, Hungary and Poland. Within three years communist rule was extirpated from Europe.

Unlike Yugoslavia and the Soviet Union, the end of communism in this country did not automatically mean the end of the "communist" name: the word "socialist" was removed from the name on 29 March 1990 and replaced by "federal".

Hungary:

Communist era 1947–1989

Following the fall of Nazi Germany, Soviet troops occupied all of the country, and Hungary gradually became a communist satellite state of the Soviet Union. In internal political conflict, an estimated 2,000 people were executed and over 100,000 were imprisoned. Approximately 350,000 officials and intellectuals were purged from 1948 to 1956. Many freethinkers and democrats were secretly arrested and taken to inland or foreign concentration camps without any judicial sentence. Some 600,000 Hungarians were deported to Soviet labour camps after the Second World War and at least 200,000 died in captivity.

Mátyás Rákosi adhered to a militarist, industrialising, and war compensation economic policy, and the standard of living fell. The rule of the Rákosi government led to the Hungarian Revolution of 1956 and Hungary's temporary withdrawal from the Warsaw Pact. The multi-party system was restored by the Prime Minister Imre Nagy. Many people were shot and killed by Soviet and Hungarian political police (ÁVH) at peaceful demonstrations throughout the country, creating a nationwide uprising.

Spontaneous revolutionary militias fought against the Soviet Army and the ÁVH in Budapest. The roughly 3,000-strong Hungarian resistance fought Soviet tanks using Molotov cocktails and machine pistols. Though the preponderance of the Soviets was immense, they suffered heavy losses, and by 30 October, most Soviet troops had withdrawn from Budapest to garrisons in the Hungarian countryside.

On 4 November 1956, the Soviets retaliated, sending in more than 150,000 troops and 2,500 tanks. During the Hungarian uprising, an estimated 20,000 people were killed, nearly all during the Soviet intervention. Nearly a quarter of a million people left the country in 1956 during the brief time that the borders were open.

Kádár Era 1956–1988

In the first days of November, the Soviet leadership was still undecided about the developments in Hungary, but soon the position prevailed that an intervention was necessary to prevent Hungary from breaking away from the Soviet bloc. János Kádár (Minister of State in the Imre Nagy cabinet) was chosen by the Soviet party leadership to act as the head of the new government intended to replace Imre Nagy's coalition cabinet. In the reprisals following the crushing of the uprising by the Soviet troops, 21,600 mavericks (democrats, liberals, and reformist communists) were imprisoned; 13,000 interned; and 230 brought to trial and executed.Imre Nagy, the legal Prime Minister of the country, was condemned to death and executed in 1958.

Following the invasion, Hungary was under Soviet military administration for a couple of months, but Kadar stabilized the political situation in a remarkably short time. In 1963, the government granted a general amnesty and released the majority of those imprisoned for their active participation in the uprising. Kadar proclaimed a new policy line, according to which the people were no longer compelled to profess loyalty to the party if they tacitly accepted the Socialist regime as a fact of life, in other words, "Those who are not against us are with us," as Kadar put it in one of his political speeches. Kádár introduced new planning priorities in the economy. Consumer goods and food were produced in greater volumes and military production was reduced to one-tenth of the pre-revolutionary level.

This was followed in 1968 by the New Economic Mechanism (NEM), which introduced free-market elements into Socialist command economy. From the 1960s through the late 1980s, Hungary was often referred to as "the happiest barrack" within the Eastern bloc. As a result of the relatively high standard of living, a more liberalised economy, a less oppressed press, and less restricted travel rights than elsewhere in the Eastern Bloc, Hungary was generally considered one of the more liberal countries in which to live in Eastern Europe during the Cold War.

The third Hungarian Republic 1989–present

In June 1988, 80,000 demonstrated against Romania's communist regime's plans to demolish Transylvanian villages. In March 1989, for the first time in decades, the government declared the anniversary of the 1848 Revolution a national holiday. Opposition demonstrations filled the streets of Budapest with more than 75,000 marchers. Premier Károly Grósz met Mikhail Gorbachev in Moscow, who accepted Hungary's moves toward a multi-party system and promised that the USSR would not interfere in Hungary's internal affairs. The Opposition Round Table Consultations with the representatives of the government, which was founded for the stated goal of introducing multi-party democracy, market economy and change of power, and defining its characteristics, started its sessions. In May, Hungary began taking down its barbed wire fence along the Austrian border – the first tear in the Iron Curtain.

June brought the reburial of former Prime Minister Imre Nagy, executed after the 1956 Revolution, drawing a crowd of 250,000 at the Heroes' Square. The last speaker, 26-year-old Viktor Orbán, publicly called for Soviet troops to leave Hungary. In September, Foreign Minister Gyula Horn announced that East German refugees in Hungary would not be repatriated but would instead be allowed to go to the West. The resulting exodus shook East Germany and hastened the fall of the Berlin Wall. On 23 October, Mátyás Szűrös declared Hungary a republic.

In the whole, three Central European countries become socialist, members of the Warsaw Treaty and Comecon. In the end of 80-s the Communists lost power in these countries.

Questions:

1. Describe the history of Iberian countries in this time.
2. What was new in the history of British isles in this period?
3. Describe the history of Benelux states in this time.
4. What is new in the French history in this period?
5. Describe the history of Nordic countries in this time.
6. What were the common features in the history of German-speaking countries in this time?
7. Describe the history of Central European states.

51. East Europe in 1950-1990.

a) the Soviet Union in 1950-1990.

In the Soviet Union there are 4th-7th periods of the 4th cycle (25-28 periods of Russian history) .

25 (4) period – 1946-1956.

Period of the maximal flourishing of Soviet system, epoch of the the fourth (1946-50) and fifth (1951-55) five-year plans. After the war country laid in ruins, 1946 there was a hunger in the Ukraine, but the West did not help the USA from “ideal” grounds. The fourth five year plan persecuted mostly the goals of removation, the fifth – planned the industrial growth of 70%. It is a period of a “restauration” (Red Army becomes the Soviet, 1946 Sovnarkom is renamed to the Council of ministers, in some schools Latin is studied, the ancient and medieval history is studied thoroughly at schools (three years), in the architecture –“Stalin empire” and classicism), corresponding typologically to the epoch of “restauration” in France under Charles X (1824-1830), the Stalin’s power remains unlimited. 1946-53 the repressions continued, among them “the Leningrad case” (1949), “the case of doctors” etc., soon after the creation of Israel the campaign against “cosmopolites” begins. The death penalty was abolished from 1947 till 1950. The money reforms was made (new rubles looked more like the old Czar ones), prizes were lowered in the cities. Collectivisation, begun at the territories, occupied in 1940, in fact only after the war, caused the indignation of peasanats. In Baltic countries and in the Ukraine the guerilla war took place, many its participants were exiled to Siberia. 1952 at the XIXth Congress the party was renamed from VKP(b) to KPSS (CPSU). In the same year ca. 1,5 mln. remained imprisoned in the camps.

 1953, after the death of Stalin (he was possibly poisoned) Beriya could become his successor, but the full transition of power into the hands of punishing organs was not accepted for the party nomenclature. Beriya, who headed the MVD and began to pretend for the leading role, was executed in December 1953 as an “enemy of people” (it is a rare case when this accusation corresponded to reality), Malenkov became a head of government, N.S.Chrushchov – a first secretary of CC. Malenkov made an amnesty, the camps were abolished. 1955 he was replaced by Bulganin. From 1954 the exploration of waste lands in Kazakhstan took place, which brought results only in the first years. The unclever policy of the cutting of territory of Russian Federation was continued, 1954 Crimea was given to the Ukraine, two Russian regions were received by Kazakhstan. But in the same 1954 Karelia was included into the RSFSR, the number of republics was decreased by one, reaching 15, Russian Federation has got the modern frontiers.

 The big changes happened in the foreign political situation. With the help of the USSR the European system of socialism was built, also in the Eastern Germany. The countries of West Europe became more and more the satellites of the USA, which was testified with the creation of NATO 1949. The response – the creation of the Warsaw Treaty – followed only 1955 (Stalin thought that the WWIII will take place inside the capitalist system itself between the states-victors and the defeated states, the help for the reunification of Germany and changing it into the neutral land like Austria exted, but it was destroyed with the entrance of FRG in the NATO 1954), but in the same 1949 SEV (COMECON) was created. Not all socialist countries supported the USSR, Yugoslavia preferred the neutral course and the economic cooperation with the West, which brought indignation of Stalin. Relations to it became better only 1954-55. Socialist system was also created in Asia, China, North Korea and Vietnam became the countries, building socialism; 1951 the treaty about friendship and cooperation with PRC was concluded (replacing the treaty of 1946), according to which Dalny and Port-Arthur were returned to China till 1955. In Asia the essence of the “real socialism” as a transitory stage from the feudalism till the modern industrial society was the most evident. In the more developed European “socialist countries”, which went at the Stalin’s way, indignation grew that caused the revolts of 1953 in GDR and of 1956 in Hungary and Poland, suppressed with the Soviet help. West took course for the “cold war”, which aim was the destruction of the USSR and its disintegration into the national states (directive of Security Council of the USA from 1947), but the test of Soviet nuclear bomb 1949 (Kurchatov) made the West a bit cautious. Instead of the WWIII the Korean war began (1950-53), which was led by two Koreas, USSR, PRC and USA. The war ended with a partition of Korea, 1954 the partition of Vietnam also took place after the end of war with France. The USSR now supported the Arabic states, especially Egypt, also in the second Arabic-Israel war 1956, where the UK and France supported Israel. The refusal from the military bases of the USSR in Port-Arthur and the neutral Finland was unclever.

Like the blasting bomb, the closed report of Khrushchov at the XX Congress of CPSU (February 1956) was made, criticing the “personality cult” of Stalin. In the whole the repressions of 1937-38 and later ones were criticized, their victims rehabilitated, the exiled small nations brought back. The earlier politics of Stalin was in general recognized as true. The “personality cult” of Stalin was abolished, but the cults of Lenin and party remained. Report really damaged greatly the authority of socialism and signified the begin of decay of the “socialist” system, founded at the slave camp trade and the serf collective farm one. Naturally, revisionist Khrushchov thought completely in other way (like Gorbachov later): destroying socialism, he thought that he modernizes it. The “warming” began at the country.

 In the science of that epoch there were achievements (especially in the sphere of atomic energy, used also for the peace goals: 1953 1st Soviet H bombe is made, 1954 1st Soviet nuclear power station in Obninsk), there were also raw mistakes (fight with genetics and cybernetics, which brought the Soviet science some decennials back). In linguistics the approach of Stalin (who did not know any foreign language) was surprisingly correct (“Marxism and the questions of linguistics” criticized the theory of Marr about four elements of language). In literature and art the socialist realism dominates, talented writers and composers (Zoshchenko, Akhmatova, Khachaturyan, Prokofyev, Shostakovich) are persecuted (resolutions of CC 1946-48). Now the thourough study of Russia history is officially promoted, first of all the epochs of Ivan the Terrible and Peter the Great, the school manuals become better. The relations to church (headed by Alexiy I) also become better, the spiritual seminaries and academies are organized.

5th period – 1957-1968.

Period of rule of Khrushchov (till 1964) and the first years of Brezhnev, ended with the invasion of Soviet forces in Chechoslocakia. It corresponds to the rule of Louis Philipp in France (1830-48), in whose time the big bourgeoisie ruled. 1957 the power of Khrushchov strengthens, plenum of CC fires so called “anti-Party group” (Stalinists Molotov, Kaganovich, Malenkov etc.), in the same year the defence minister Zhukov was fired. The power in the party and in the country is fully in the hands of Khrushchov, 1958 he also becomes a head of government (instead of Bulganin). Khrushchov estimated the situation in the country not correctly and proposed utopic and unneeded projects. 1957 the “sovnarkhozy” (councils of people’s economy) instead of ministries were introduced, after three years of the 6th five-year plan (1956-58) the seven-year plan was announced (1959-65), XXI Congress of CPSU (1959) came to the conclusion about the full and decisive victory of socialism in the USSR and about the begin of stretched building of communism. A task to reach and supercede the USA according to the level of production for a person was put. 1961 at the XXII Congress of the party the IIIrd program of the party was accepted, which developed an utopic plan of building of communism for twenty years. At the same congress the personality cult of Stalin was condemned openly, the body of Stalin was put out from the mausoleum of Lenin, the works were excluded, the monuments were destroyed, Stalingrad is renamed to Volgograd. In fact the transition from Marxist communism to the earlier utopic one took place, although party continued to cite the ideas of Marx-Engels-Stalin. Utopism of Khrushchov discredited communism among its supporters abroad, search of the “third way” (for example, “Arabic socialism”) strengthened. 1961 the money reform was made, new ruble existed for thirty years. The industry grew. Meanwhile the situation in agriculture worsened (because of the unclever experiments), after the passports were allowed to collective farm workers, the flight from village into town strengthened. Problems with food supply brought the revolt in Novocherkassk (1962) and grew in the next years. In the CC indignation with the “voluntarist” actions of Khrushchov grew, in October 1964 he was dismissed; Leonid Brezhnev became the first (from 1966 – the general) secretary of CPSU. One person could not now be both a party leader and a head of government; this position was taken by Kosygin, who tried to make reforms in the industry and to introduce a “hozraschet” (economic paying). The ministries were restored, 1966 the eight five-year plan was introduced. In the same year the work of collective farm peasants began to be paid. The real powrr was in the hands of the first secretary of CC. In the union’s republics the nationalism strengthens, the corrupted party-mafia clans are formed.

 The foreign and defence policy of that epoch was also not correct. Already the XX Congress of the part approved the fatal for the fate of socialism thesis about the peaceful coexistence of the states with the different systems, which really could cause only the weakness and death of socialism. Khrushchov overestimated the revolutionary character of the world situation and believed into the soon perishment of capitalism. In this time the countries of Asia and Africa are really liberated from the colonial yoke, but only in Cuba 1959 the dictature of Castro was established, which aim was socialism. Therefore USSR strengthened the support of Cuba, 1962 the famous Caribic crisis took place because of the stationing of Soviet rockets in Cuba, which nearly brought the world to the nuclear war. Army was reduced till 2 mln. (till 1958), 1963 the treaty about the prohibition of nuclear weapon tests in three spheres was subscribed. In the same time there were no persepectives of socialist revolution in the west, in the USA, West Germany and other countries the active fight with Communists was led, in Spain and Portugal the Fascist regimes continued to rule, in democratic countries too the striving to the “strong hand” strengthens, therefore the generals of WWII (Eisenhower, de Gaulle) come to power. The last one founds the Fifth republic, which goes out from the military organization of the NATO, and makes better the relations with the USSR. But in the same time the relations with socialist countries themselves, first of all with China, become complicated; it was shown in the conferences of Communist parties 1957 and 1960. China (and Albania after it) condemned the policy of peaceful coexistence, accused Khrushchov in the attempts to restore capitalism and called him a revisionist (speech of Mao Tsedong 1964), finally 1964 China made pretensions for the Soviet Far East. The relations with the USA remained tensed; they could not be improvedeven from the visit of Khrushchov in the USA 1959 (the first visit of the Soviet leader in the USA), already 1960 the relations became worse because of the avion-spy U-2. The Berlin wall, built 1961, became a symbol of the partition of Germany; the conflict of two systems in Europe became stronger. 1965 the USA were involved into the war in Vietnam, supporting the Southern Vietnam and bombing the North Vietnam, which was supported with USSR and China. 1967 the third Arab-Israel war takes place, USSR supports Arabic lands, first of all Egypt, as well as Syria and Iraq, who were supposed to be on the way of socialist orientation. Finally, 1968 the invasion of the Warsaw Treaty troops (accept Rumania) into Chechoslovakia took place to suppress the changes, which begun there. As protest Albania left the Warsaw Treaty.

 Fight between USSR and USA for the leadership in the space exploration takes place, where in this period the USSR is leading. 1957 the first satellite of Earth is launched, 1961 Yury Gagarin is in the space. But the USA soon overcome the retardation, especially after the death of the talented constructor Korolyov 1966. The television begins to propagate. 1958 the general eight-year education was introduced. The school reform was more negative than positive: the courses of history were shortened, instead of fundamental sciences the labor education was introduced. The fight with religion begins again, the churches are destroyed, in the high schools the “scholarly atheism” was introduced. In the same time ROCh enters the Oecumenic Church Council and takes part in the “struggle for peace”. Stalin prizes were renamed into the State ones, the Lenin prizes appeared again. Soviet scholars now become also the Nobel prize laureats. The Soviet intelligentsia, which had to be mute for many years, now more and more becomes oppositional to the regime. Pasternak gets a Nobel prize for his novel “Doctor Zhivago”, but has to refuse from it under the threat of privation of Soviet citizenship. 1966 Sholokhov also gets a Nobel prize for “Queit Don”, Akhmatova dies. Around the magazine “Novy mir (New world)” of Tvardovsky the persons of “warming” are united, 1963 a story of A.I.Solzhenitsin “One day of Ivan Denisovich” is published there. Famous poets of the begin of 60-s were Yevtushenko, Rozhdestvensky, Voznesensky, bards – Galich and Okujava, the work of poet, singer and actor V.Vysotsky begins. Dostoevsky and Yesenin, who were prohibited earlier, return to in the couses of literature. But with the begin of Brezhnev rule “warming” was abolished, its persons have more and more difficulties. In the same times experiments in the agriculture were abolished, genetics and cybernetics were “rehabilitated”, but the time was already lost. Very interesting experiments in the sphere of psychology (Vasilyev) begin to be made.

In the whole the epoch is very contradictory, it was well characterized only… by Mao Tsedong (who himself made the “big jumping” in that time, and the “culture revolution” later), who said that Chrushchov used Marxism-Leninism only as a label, creating a personal dictature, and really servs to the interests of “very thin layer of privileged bourgeoisie” (one can only add the “party-nomenclature”). These words become even more true in relation to his successor Brezhnev.

(6) period – 1968-1979.

Period of Brezhnev rule, who became also a head of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR instead Podgorny 1977. He corresponds to the Napoleon III Bonapart in France. To some extent it is a caricature of Stalin, who corresponds to Bonapart I. 9 (1971-75) и 10 (1976-80) five-year plans were not so successful, like the prevous ones, tempos of economic growth become lower, the country lives mostly from the oil and gas export, importing grain (because of devastation of villages and crisis of collective farm economy, the declarated unification of town and village became a flight of village inhabitants into the town). Baikal-Amur magistral is built (mostly from military grounds for the case when Chinese would occupy Transsib). The “shadow” economics develops more and more. 1977 the new Constitution of the USSR is accepted. Compared with the “classicist” Stalin’s, it can be can be called “decadent” (a feature of period) because of the plenty of phrases, but only one thing is changed in the essence: article 6 is introduced, here the leading role of the Communist party is proclaimed. Trying to save the face under the evident fiasco of the plan of building of communism, the building of “developed socialism” is proclaimed (people joke: it is a socialism, inside of which capitalism is developed). Glorifying of Brezhnev and the party (because of 30 years of victory in the Great Patriotic war and 60 years of revolution) reach the culmination (as well as the anecdots about the general secretary), but Brezhnev himself becomes less and less able to rule.

 In the foreign policy there is a period of “détente”. It has relation first of all to the relations with Europe (Russia becomes more and more closer to Europe, going out from the Asiatic situation of epoch of Lenin-Stalin), where the social-democrats rule. 1972 the treaty with FRG is concluded, which confirms the existence of two German states. 1975 in Helsinki the Concluding act of the meeting about security and cooperation in Europe is subscribed, which confirmed the unchangeability of European frontiers (which were changed only about 15 years). The contacts between SEV (Comecon) and EEC, as well as the integration inside SEV become better (now Vietnam, Mongolia and Cuba are members too). The relations to the USA are not so good, but also here the changes are evident. 1972 the visit of Nixon to the USSR takes place (it is a first visit of American president to Russia after Yalta meeting 1945), the treaty about anti-rocket defence is subscribed, 1974 Brezhnev meets with Nixon and Ford. Talks about limiting of strategic weapons (START) are led. 1973 the USA bring the troops from Vietnam, then the socialist north defeats the capitalist south and 1975 Vietnam is unified. Laos also becomes socialist. But it was a last victory of the “world system of socialism”, split into the supporters of Soviet or Chinese orientation. The last ones established the cruel regime in Campuchia 1976-79, which devastated the towns, murdered some millions of population and discredited communism.

Under Carter (1976-80) the USA begin the “struggle for the human rights”, characterized with the intrusion into the inside affairs of other countries, first of all the socialist ones (despite the USA declaration of 1941). The relations with China remained tensioned, 1969 the frontier conflict upon Ussuri River takes place, the Maoist China also comes closer to the USA (visit of Nixon to China 1972). After the death of Mao (1976) the “gang of four” is condemned, it is proclaimed responsible for the “cultural revolution” (typologically corresponding to the repressions of late Stalin epoch, beginning from 1937) and reforms begin, first of all in the economics. It reminds typologically 1953-57 in the USSR, Hua Gofen and his people corresponding to Malenkov and Bulganin. Because of “restauration of capitalism” in China Albania quits it, remaining on the Stalinist positions. At the Near East USSR supports Syria, Iraq and PLO, headed by Arafat, 1973 the fourth Arab-Israel war takes place. Strange enough, USSR has also good relations with Shah Iran. Egypt also remains an ally of the USSR, but after Sadat came to power (1970), the relations worsen. Libya, Angola and Ethiopia became new allies of the USSR.

 The competition of USSR and USA in the space continues. USA reach USSR, 1969 they make a Moon landing. USSR prefers to send “Lunokhods” (Moon-goers), USSR explore Venus, USA – Venus, Mars and Jupiter. From 1971 USSR support the long time orbital stations in the near space, 1975 the meeting of Soviet cosmonauts and American austronauts (“Soyuz-Apollo”) takes place.

 Period of the “dissidents” in the USSR, supported by CIA. The biggest critics of regime were Solzhenitsin, who was sent out from the country 1974 and got the Nobel price of peace 1975, and Sakharov, exiled to Gorky 1979. In Samizdat (self-publishing) different texts, corresponding to the intuitive level, are published. The psychological and “information” war strengthens (under the pretext of freedom of information), Communists lose the fight for minds of youth, educated not by official Pioneer and Komsomol organization, but by Western radiostations and rock-music. The psychological investigations are led, which oft supercede the frames of the official Soviet psychology. Florishing of sciences, studying the antiquity, excavations are made in the many places of the Soviet Union. The time of “Aesopus language” in the literature, flourishing of satyre, which is restrained by censure in the frames “of struggle with separate misgivings”. All the country listens to the songs of Vysocky, ses comedies, Andrey Mironov was a famous actor of the epoch. In the films, even revolutionary, the nostalgy for the corresponding period of Czarist Russia is evident. The Russian rock appears, Grebenshchikov and his group “Aquarium” begins his activity, the songs of Makarevich also have an oppositional subtext. The emigration of Jews in Israel strengthens. One of the emigrants was Russian poet and novelist Henri Volokhonsky. Repressions of KGB also strengthen, it is led by Andropov (from 1967), but the fight for minds of people is already lost. Epoch of lie, hypocrisy and stealing at all levels.

28(7) period – 1979-1991.

Period begins from the important international events. As revenge for the occupation of Campuchia China begins the large-scale invasion to Vietnam. It was a first war between the “socialist” states, which testified about the general crisis of socialism. In China itself reformer Den Xiaopin comes to power, who typologically corresponds to Khrushchov, but (in difference to him and Gorbachov) he puts the economic reforms at the first place (program of “four modernizations”). Much more important events take place in the Middle East (Iran and Afghanistan). The force, threatening both capitalism and socialism – radical Islam – appears. Speaking with a language of Soviet historians, “a new stage in the history of the world revolutionary movement” begins. When 19th century went under the sign of the French revolution, 20th century – of Russian, then 21st century will go under the sign of the Islamic revolution. The USA become the main enemy of Iran, the attempt of an American intervention fails, but 1980 the Iran-Iraq war begins, continuing till 1988. Initially USA support Iraq, headed by Saddam Husein, but after the occupation of Quwait (1990) they make a successful military operation “Storm in the desert”. Kuwait was liberated, but now Iraq becomes the worst enemy of the USA. In Afghanistan the occupational Soviet army has to fight with the Islamic partisans, supported by USA, in this was the USSR has lost 15,000 people, the troops were drawn back only 1989. After the conclusion of separate Camp-David peace (1979) Egypt left the anti-Israel coalition (having become Sinai for it), which caused the murder of President Sadat 1981. 1982 the fifth Arab-Israel war begins, Israel occupies the South Lebanon. The entering of Soviet troops into Afghanistan influences negatively the relations with the West, which boycotts the Olympic Games in Moscow 1980. In the begin of 80-s in the West the “hawks” (Reagan, Thatcher, Kohl) come to power, who call to make a “crusade against communism”.

 1980 Kosygin was succeeded by Tikhonov as head of government. XXVI Congress of CPSU (1981) was the last congress of Brezhnev, he dies 1982, and former KGB chef Andropov becomes his successor and tries to better the discipline in the country. In this time (1983) at the territory of Europe the American cruise missiles are stationed, Europe becomes a hostage of the USA, the threat of nuclear war hung over the USSR, like in the time of Caribic crisis. As revenge for the boycott of Olympic Games 1980 USSR and other socialist states boycott the Olympic Games of 1984 in Los-Angeles, both sides demonstrated clearly that in their understanding sport can easily become a hostage of politics. Andropov dies 1984, his successor, old Chernenko – 1985. With this event the epoch of “gerontocracy” ends; relatively young (54 years) reformer Gorbachov becomes a general secretary (his possible rival was a conservator Ligachov, but he was also old).

 1986 Gorbachov summons the next, XXVII Congress of CPSU; one speaks now only about the “acceleration” (tempos of economical growth were sunk very much in the 11th five-year plan), the 12th five-year plan is accepted, which became the last one. In the same year the Chernobyl catastrophe takes place (possibly, a diversion). Gorbaschov could better the relations to the West (with a state treason). Gobrachov himself is in the reality already not a Communist, but a Socialist, corresponding to Louis Blanc (1811-82) in France. His ideal – the “renovation” of socialism. From the lexics of Alexander II he takes words “glasnost” (openness) and “perestroika” (rebuilding).

 1987 70 years of revolution are celebrated, in this time the split between Gorbachov and Yeltsin begins. Superficially the politics of Gorbachov looks like the continuation of Khrushchov “warming” and attracts the intelligentsia on his side. The Stalin repressions are condemned in general, Bukharin, Rykov and others are rehabilitated. In the country pseudo –“cooperativs” appear, serving to the legalization of “shadow” economics. But the proclaimed goal of Gorbachov is “return to the Lenin goals of socialism”, in the world policy – building of a “European house” (idea of de Gaulle), which testifies about the return of Russia to Europe. Utopism is politics id gravely punished, especially in our pragmatic epoch. 1988 the XIX party conference takes place, the program of politic reforms is accepted. Already at the end of 1988 the Karabakh conflict between Armenia and Azerbeiijan begins, republics more and more cease to be controlled. 1989 the First congress of people’s deputies is summoned, electing the Supreme Soviet of USSR; Gorbachov becomes its chairman. Formally it is a return to the practice of 1917-36, in fact – the begin of anarchy in the land. It is a first and a last congress with participation of Sakharov, who dies soon. In the congress the democratic opposition – “Interregionary group of deputies” appears. The economic situation decays rapidly. In the same 1989 the fiasco of socialism in the East Europe takes place, Gorbachov de facto leaves his allies of Warsaw Treaty; the changes in Asia did not take place (in China the anti-Communist demonstration of students according to the visit of Gorbachov was suppressed), accept Mongolia, where democracy wins later. Because of the changes in East Europe Germany is united 1990, Warsaw Treaty is dissolved, but NATO continues to exist. In the same 1990 Gorbachov is elected a president of the USSR at the congress, but in the same year the Supreme Soviet of RSFSR, headed by Yeltsin, is elected, Russia and other republics proclaim their sovereignty, Baltic countries became de facto independent. 1990 the last, XXVIIIth Congress of CPSU takes place. Communist parties are divided too, the Communist party of Russia, headed by Polozkov, is created. Events of 1989-1991 corresponded to the 1870-71 in France, Russia enters into the new macroperiod.

 In Moscow the epoch of “two powers” – struggle between the Supreme Soviets and governments of RSFSR and USSR – begins. Vice prime-minister of Russia Yavlinsky proposes the demagogic program “500 days”. 1991 begins with the events in Lithuania and Latvia. Attempts to suppress separatists causes the indignation of democratic public. The economic measures of prime minister of USSR Pavlov make the situation in the country even worse. June 12, 1991 Yeltsin is elected a president of Russia. Attempt to conclude a new Union treaty failed; the August coup, made by the Gorbachov’s team, was unsuccessful. CPSU (which had already 20 mln. of people) is prohibited, all power is taken by the leaders of republics, i.e. the same nomenclature. In fact the “nomenclature revolution” took place. In it it differs from the democratic revolutions in the East Europe, where dissidents came to power (like Walęsa in Poland and Havel in Czechoslovakia), but also there and especially in the Baltic countries nomenclature managed to “change color” in due time. The proclamation of independence by all republics of the USSR begins. Gorbachov becomes a president without a country and a general secretary without a party (which excluded him for treason). December 8, 1991 Yeltsin, Kravchuk and Shushkevich subscribe the shameful Belovezhskoye agreement about the dissolving of the USSR. In the same day the European Community becomes a European Union (a coincidence?) Instead of the USSR December 21 The Community of Independent States (without Baltic countries) is created; December 25 Gorbachov declares that he leaves the duties of President of USSR.

 As every late epoch (period corresponds to the “silver age” of begin of 20th century), it is a time of mystic and religious mood, the spiritual period. After the celebration of 1000 years of Rus baptism the return to Orthodoxy takes place (patriarch Alexiy II blesses Yeltsin), but not only: yoga and oriental teachings are propagated, Islam and Buddhism are revived, “extrasensy” (sensitives), astrology, magic, hypnosis become popular (even on TV “psychoterapeuts” Kashpirovsky and Chumak make séances: watching these programs, Soviet fools became post-Soviet idiots, prepared for the swift deterioration of their life and even glad to it), from the West sects and preachers come. Mytsic moods of epoch are reflected well in the songs of B.Grebenshchikov, rock music has a function of “protest music” for youth. Epoch of losing of orientation, treason, mass psychosis and insanity.

b) Balkan countries in 1950-1990.

Yugoslavia:

The constitution of 1946 gave wide autonomy to the six newly created republics, but actual power remained in the hands of Tito and the Communist party. The Allied peace treaty (1947) with Italy awarded Yugoslavia the eastern part of Venezia Giulia and set up Trieste as a free territory; conflict with Italy over Trieste ended in a partition agreement (1954). Within Yugoslavia a vigorous program of socialization was inaugurated. Opposition was crushed or intimidated, and Mihajlović was executed. Close ties were maintained with the USSR and the Cominform until 1948, when a breach between the Yugoslav and Soviet Communist parties occurred and Yugoslavia was expelled from the Cominform. The Tito government began to pursue an independent course in foreign relations. Economic and military assistance was received from the West. In 1954, Yugoslavia concluded a military defense pact (independent of NATO) with Greece and Turkey. More cordial relations with the USSR were resumed in 1955, but new rifts occurred because of Soviet intervention in Hungary (1956) and Czechoslovakia (1968). Domestically Yugoslavia's "national communism" or "Titoism" included the abandonment of agricultural collectivization (1953) and the centralization of administrative and economic controls. Important economic power was given to workers' councils, and the republics were subdivided into communes. In 1966, Aleksander Ranković, the vice president and Tito's long-time associate, was purged for having maintained a network of secret agents and for opposing reform. Friction with the Roman Catholic Church ended with an accord with the Vatican in 1966. Yugoslavs under Tito possessed greater freedom than the inhabitants of any other Eastern European country. Intellectual freedom was still restricted, however, as the jailings and harassment of Milovan Djilas and Mihaljo Mihaljov showed. In the early 1970s, agitation among the nationalities revived, particularly among the Croats, and controls over intellectual life were stiffened. The autonomy of the six republics and two autonomous provinces of Serbia slowly increased through the 1970s as the economy began to stagnate. With the death of Tito in 1980, an unwieldy collective leadership was established. The economic problems and ethnic divisions continued to deepen in the 1980s, and the foreign debt grew significantly.

The Disintegration of Yugoslavia

In 1987, Slobodan Milošević, a Serbian nationalist, became the Serbian Communist party leader. To the alarm of the other republics Milošević and his supporters revived the vision of a "Greater Serbia," which would consist of Serbia proper, Vojvodina, Kosovo, the Serb-populated parts of Croatia, large sections of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and possibly Macedonia. In early 1989, Serbia rescinded Kosovo's autonomy and sent in troops to suppress the protests of Kosovo's largely Albanian population. Slovenia and Croatia elected non-Communist governments in early 1990 and, threatening secession, demanded greater autonomy. Serbia and Montenegro were the only republics to retain Communist leadership; Milošević was elected president of Serbia in 1989.

Romania:

In November 1946 elections were held in Romania and the left wing parties did well. The Communists took key posts and in December 1947 the king was forced to abdicate. In February 1948 other left wing parties merged with the Communist Party and a totalitarian regime was introduced in Romania. Industry was nationalised. Meanwhile Antonescu was shot as a war criminal in 1946. Thousands of other Romanians met the same fate.

Russian troops withdrew from Rumania in 1958 and after 1960 Romania adopted an independent foreign policy. In 1965 Nicolae Ceausescu became ruler of Romania.1968 he refused to support the Soviet invasion to Chechoslovakia. Although Ceausescu had an independent foreign policy he ruled Romania with a rod of iron. Ceausescu was determined to increase heavy industry in Romania but ordinary people suffered abject poverty. They also suffered terrible repression.

The Communist regime in Romania suddenly collapsed in 1989. In December demonstrations took place in Timisoara. On 21 December Ceausescu was booed by a crowd in Bucharest and demonstrations followed. The next day Ceausescu appeared on the balcony of the Central Committee Building but he was forced to escape by helicopter. Ceausescu's fellow Communists deserted him and he was arrested. He and his wife were shot on 25 December 1989.

Bulgaria:

During this time (1944–1989), the country was known as the "People's Republic of Bulgaria" (PRB) and was ruled by the Bulgarian Communist Party (BCP). The BCP transformed itself in 1990, changing its name to "Bulgarian Socialist Party".

Although communist leader Dimitrov had been in exile, mostly in the Soviet Union, since 1923, he was everything but a Soviet puppet. He had shown great courage in Nazi Germany during the Reichstag Fire trial of 1933 and had later headed the Comintern during the period of the Popular Front. He was also close to the Yugoslav Communist leader Tito and believed that Yugoslavia and Bulgaria, as closely related South Slav peoples, should form a federation. This idea was not favoured by Stalin and there have long been suspicions that Dimitrov's sudden death in July 1949 was not accidental, although this has never been proven. It coincided with Stalin's expulsion of Tito from the Cominform and was followed by a "Titoist" witch hunt in Bulgaria. This culminated in the show trial and execution of Deputy Prime Minister Traicho Kostov. The elderly Prime Minister Kolarov died in 1950 and power then passed to a Stalinist, Vulko Chervenkov.

Bulgaria's Stalinist phase lasted less than five years. Under his leadership, agriculture was collectivised, peasant rebellions were crushed, and a massive industrialisation campaign was launched. Labor camps were set up and at the height of the repression housed about 100,000 people. The Orthodox Patriarch was confined to a monastery and the Church placed under state control. In 1950 diplomatic relations with the U.S. were broken off. But Chervenkov's support base even in the Communist Party was too narrow for him to survive long, once his patron Stalin was gone. Stalin died in March 1953 and in March 1954 Chervenkov was deposed as Party Secretary with the approval of the new leadership in Moscow and replaced by Todor Zhivkov. Chervenkov stayed on as Prime Minister until April 1956, when he was finally dismissed and replaced by Anton Yugov.

During the 1960s, Zhivkov initiated reforms and passed some market-oriented policies on an experimental level. By the mid 1950s standards of living rose significantly, and in 1957 collective farm workers benefited from the first agricultural pension and welfare system in Eastern Europe.Lyudmila Zhivkova, daughter of Todor Zhivkov, promoted Bulgaria's national heritage, culture and arts on a global scale. Soothsayer Vanga Petkova was famous in this time. On the other hand, an assimilation campaign of the late 1980s directed against ethnic Turks resulted in the emigration of some 300,000 Bulgarian Turks to Turkey, which caused a significant drop in agricultural production due to the loss of labor force.

Greece:

Postwar recovery

In the 1950s and 1960s, Greece developed rapidly, initially with the help of the U.S. Marshall Plan's grants and loans, and later through growth in the tourism sector. New attention was given to women's rights, and in 1952 suffrage for women was guaranteed in the Constitution, full Constitutional equality following, and Lina Tsaldari becoming the first female minister that decade.

In 1967, the Greek military seized power in a coup d'état, overthrew the centre right government of Panagiotis Kanellopoulos.[25] It established the Greek military junta of 1967-1974 which became known as the Régime of the Colonels. In 1973, the régime abolished the Greek monarchy. In 1974, dictator Papadopoulos denied help to the U.S. After a second coup that year, Colonel Ioannides was appointed as the new head-of-state.

Ioannides was responsible for the 1974 coup against President Makarios of Cyprus. The coup became the pretext for the first wave of the Turkish invasion of Cyprus in 1974 (see Greco-Turkish relations). The Cyprus events and the outcry following a bloody suppression of Athens Polytechnic uprising in Athens led to the implosion of the military régime. An exiled politician, Konstantinos Karamanlis, returned and became interim prime minister on July 23, 1974 and later gained re-election for two further terms at the head of the conservative Nea Dimokratia party. In August 1974, Greek forces withdrew from the integrated military structure of NATO in protest at the Turkish occupation of northern Cyprus.

Restoration of democracy

In 1974, a referendum voted 69%-31% to confirm the deposition of King Constantine II. A democratic republican constitution came into force. Another previously exiled politician, Andreas Papandreou also returned and founded the socialist Panhellenic Socialist Movement (PASOK) party, which won the elections in 1981 and dominated the country's political course for almost two decades.

Since the restoration of democracy, the stability and economic prosperity of Greece have grown remarkably. Greece rejoined NATO in 1980. Greece joined the European Union in 1981. New infrastructure, funds from the EU and growing revenues from tourism, shipping, services, light industry and the telecommunications industry have brought Greeks an unprecedented standard of living. Tensions continue to exist between Greece and Turkey over Cyprus and the delimitation of borders in the Aegean Sea but relations have considerably thawed following successive earthquakes—first in Turkey and then in Greece—and an outpouring of sympathy and generous assistance by ordinary Greeks and Turks.

Cyprus:

Between 1955-59 EOKA was created by Greek Cypriots and led by George Grivas to perform enosis (union of the island with Greece). However the EOKA campaign did not result union with Greece but rather an independent republic, The Republic of Cyprus, in 1960.

In 1960, the mostly Muslim Turkish Cypriots were only 18% of the Cypriot population. However, the 1960 constitution carried major imbalances in the favour of Turkish Cypriots regarding state affairs, such as the vice-president being Turkish Cypriot, 30% of parliament being Turkish Cypriot, etc. Archbishop Makarios would be the President and Dr Fazil Kucuk would become Vice President. One of the articles in the constitution was the creation of separate local municipalities so that Greek and Turkish Cypriots could manage their own municipalities in the big towns.Internal conflicts turned into full-fledged armed fighting between the two communities on the island which prompted the United Nations to send peacekeeping forces in 1964; these forces are still in place today. In 1974 Greek Cypriots performed a military coup with the support of military junta in Greece. Turkey used the coup as a pretext to invade the northern portion of the island. Turkish forces remained after a cease-fire, resulting in the partition of the island; an objective of Turkey since 1955. The intercommunal violence and subsequent Turkish invasion led to the displacement of hundreds of thousands of Cypriots.

The de facto state of Northern Cyprus was proclaimed in 1975 under the name "Turkish Federated State of Northern Cyprus". The name was changed to its present form on 15 November 1983. The only country to formally recognise The "Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus" is Turkey. Hundreds of thousands of Turkish settlers have been granted right to illegally reside in the 'TRNC' and allowed to reside on Greek Cypriot land and property in order to change the island's demographic in favour of the Turkish Cypriots. The international community considers the North as occupied territory of the Republic of Cyprus and Turkey has repeatedly violated numerous UN Resolutions calling on it to withdraw its occupation.

In the whole, in this period the Orthodox Balkan countries were both "socialist" (Yugoslavia, Rumania, Bulgaria) and "capitalist" (Greece, Cyprus); they were neutral (Yugoslavia, Cyprus), belonged to the NATO (Greece) or to the Warsaw treaty (Rumania, Bulgaria).

Questions:

1. What are the main results of the Soviet history in this time?
2. Describe the history of Yugoslavia in this time.
3. What differences there were in development between the "socialist" and "capitalist" Balkan countries?

52. Jews in 1950-1990.

State of Israel (1948–present)

Israeli Declaration of Independence

On May 14, 1948, the last British forces left through Haifa. The same day, in a public ceremony in Tel-Aviv, Ben-Gurion read out the Israeli Declaration of Independence, declaring the establishment of a Jewish state in Eretz-Israel, to be known as the State of Israel. Both superpower leaders, U.S. President Harry S. Truman (as to the provision government as the de facto authority of the new State of Israel) and Soviet leader Joseph Stalin, immediately recognized the new state.

War of Independence

The Arab League members Egypt, Transjordan, Syria, Lebanon and Iraq refused to accept the UN partition plan and proclaimed the right of self-determination for the Arabs across the whole of Palestine. The Arab states marched their forces into what had, until the previous day, been the British Mandate for Palestine. The new state of Israel had an organized and efficient army, the Haganah, under the command of Israel Galili. The Arab forces were of varying quality, but Arab states had heavy military equipment at their disposal. The invading Arab armies were initially on the offensive but the Israelis soon recovered from the initial shock of being invaded on all sides. On May 29, 1948, the British initiated United Nations Security Council Resolution 50 and declared an arms embargo on the region. Czechoslovakia violated the resolution supplying the Jewish state with critical military hardware to match the (mainly British) heavy equipment and planes already owned by the invading Arab states. On June 11, a month-long UN truce was put into effect.

Following the announcement of independence, the Haganah became the Israel Defense Forces (IDF). The Palmach, Etzel and Lehi were required to cease independent operations and join the IDF. During the ceasefire, Etzel attempted to bring in a private arms shipment aboard a ship called "Altalena". When they refused to hand the arms to the government, Ben-Gurion ordered that the ship be sunk. Several Etzel members were killed in the fighting. Large numbers of Jewish immigrants, many of them World War II veterans and Holocaust survivors, now began arriving in the new state of Israel, and many joined the IDF.

After an initial loss of territory by the Jewish state and occupation of Arab Palestine by the Arab armies, from July the tide gradually turned in the Israelis favour and they pushed the Arab armies out and conquered some of the territory which had been included in the proposed Arab state. At the end of November, tenuous local ceasefires were arranged between the Israelis, Syrians and Lebanese. On December 1, King Abdullah announced the union of Transjordan with Arab Palestine west of the Jordan, the new state name being the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan. He adopted the title "King of Arab Palestine", much to the disgust of most other Arab states.

Armistice Agreements

Peace talks were held on Rhodes, under the chairmanship of UN mediator Dr. Ralph Bunche. Israel signed armistices with Egypt (February 24), Lebanon (March 23), Jordan (April 3) and Syria (July 20). No actual peace agreements were signed. With permanent ceasefire coming into effect, Israel's new borders, later known as the Green Line, were established.[citation needed] The IDF had overrun Galilee and the Negev. The Syrians remained in control of a strip of territory along the Sea of Galilee originally allocated to the Jewish state, the Lebanese occupied a tiny area at Rosh Hanikra, and the Egyptians retained the Gaza strip and still had some forces surrounded inside Israeli territory. Jordanian forces remained in occupation of the West Bank and East Jerusalem, exactly where the British had stationed them before the war. Jordan annexed the areas it occupied while Egypt kept Gaza as an occupied zone.

Following the ceasefire declaration, Britain released over 2,000 Jewish detainees it was still holding in Cyprus and recognized the state of Israel. On May 11, 1949, Israel was admitted as a member of the United Nations. Out of an Israeli population of 650,000, some 6,000 men and women were killed in the fighting, including 4,000 soldiers in the IDF. According to United Nations figures, 726,000 Palestinians had fled or were evicted by the Israelis between 1947 and 1949. Except in Jordan, the Palestinian refugees were settled in large refugee camps in poor, overcrowded conditions. In December 1949, the UN (in response to a British proposal) established an agency (UNRWA) to provide aid to the Palestinian refugees.

1948–1954: Ben-Gurion I

A 120-seat parliament, the Knesset, met first in Tel Aviv then moved to Jerusalem after the 1949 ceasefire. In January 1949, Israel held its first elections. The Socialist-Zionist parties Mapai and Mapam won the most seats (46 and 19 respectively), but not an outright majority. Mapai's leader, David Ben-Gurion, was appointed Prime Minister. The Knesset elected Chaim Weizmann as the first (largely ceremonial) President of Israel. Hebrew and Arabic were made the official languages of the new state. All governments have been coalitions—no party has ever won a majority in the Knesset. From 1948 until 1977 all governments were led by Mapai and the Alignment, predecessors of the Labour Party. In those years Labour Zionists, initially led by David Ben-Gurion, dominated Israeli politics and the economy was run on primarily socialist lines.

Within three years (1948 to 1951), immigration doubled the Jewish population of Israel and left an indelible imprint on Israeli society. Overall, 700,000 Jews settled in Israel during this period. Some 300,000 arrived from Asian and North African nations as part of the Jewish exodus from Arab and Muslim countries. Among them, the largest group (over 100,000) was from Iraq. The rest of the immigrants were from Europe, including more than 270,000 who came from Eastern Europe, mainly Romania and Poland (over 100,000 each). Nearly all the Jewish immigrants could be described as refugees, however only 136,000 who immigrated to Israel from Central Europe, had international certification because they belonged to the 250,000 Jews registered by the allies as displaced after World War II and living in Displaced persons camps in Germany, Austria and Italy.

In 1950 the Knesset passed the Law of Return, which granted to all Jews and those of Jewish ancestry, and their spouses, the right to settle in Israel and gain citizenship. That year, 50,000 Yemenite Jews (99%) were secretly flown to Israel. In 1951 Iraqi Jews were granted temporary permission to leave the country and 120,000 (over 90%) opted to move to Israel. Jews also fled from Lebanon, Syria and Egypt. By the late sixties, about 500,000 Jews had left Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia. Over the course of twenty years, some 850,000 Jews from Arab countries (almost the entire Jewish population of the Arab lands) relocated to Israel (680,000), France and the Americas. The land and property left behind the Jews (much of it in Arab city centres) is still a matter of some dispute. Today there are about 9,000 Jews living in Arab states, of whom 75% live in Morocco and 15% in Tunisia.

Between 1948 and 1958, the population of Israel rose from 800,000 to two million. During this period, food, clothes and furniture had to be rationed in what became known as the Austerity Period (Tkufat haTsena). Immigrants were mostly refugees with no money or possessions and many were housed in temporary camps known as ma'abarot. By 1952, over 200,000 immigrants were living in tents or prefabricated shacks built by the government. Israel received financial aid from private donations from outside the country (mainly the United States). The pressure on the new state's finances led Ben-Gurion to sign a reparations agreement with West Germany. During the Knesset debate some 5,000 demonstrators gathered and riot police had to cordon the building. Israel received several billion marks and in return agreed to open diplomatic relations with Germany.

At the end of 1953, Ben-Gurion retired to Kibbutz Sde Boker in the Negev.

In 1949, education was made free and compulsory for all citizens until the age of 14. The state now funded the party-affiliated Zionist education system and a new body created by the Haredi Agudat Israel party. A separate body was created to provide education for the remaining Palestinian-Arab population. The major political parties now competed for immigrants to join their education systems. Fearing that the immigrants lacked sufficient "Zionist motivation", the government banned the existing educational bodies from the transit camps and tried to mandate a unitary secular socialist education. Education came under the control of "camp managers" who also had to provide work, food and housing for the immigrants. There were attempts to force orthodox Yemenite children to adopt a secular life style by teachers, including many instances of Yemenite children having their side-curls cut by teachers. This treatment of Orthodox children led to the first Israeli public enquiry (the Fromkin Inquiry). The crisis led to the collapse of the coalition and an election in 1951, with little change in the results from the previous election. In 1953 the party-affiliated education system was scrapped. The General Zionist and Socialist Zionist education systems were united to become the secular state education system while the Mizrahi became the State Modern Orthodox system. Agudat Israel were allowed to maintain their existing school system.

In its early years Israel sought to maintain a non-aligned position between the super-powers. However, in 1952, an antisemitic public trial was staged in Moscow in which a group of Jewish doctors were accused of trying to poison Stalin (the Doctors' plot), followed by a similar trial in Czechoslovakia (Slánský trial). This, and the failure of Israel to be included in the Bandung Conference (of non-aligned states), effectively ended Israel's pursuit of non-alignment. On May 19, 1950, Egypt announced that the Suez Canal was closed to Israeli ships and commerce. In 1952 a military coup in Egypt brought Abdel Nasser to power. The United States pursued close relations with the new Arab states, particularly the Nasser-led Egyptian Free Officers Movement and Ibn Saud of Saudi Arabia. Israel's solution to diplomatic isolation was to establish good relations with newly independent states in Africa and with France, which was engaged in the Algerian War.

1954–1955: Sharett

In the January 1955 elections Mapai won 40 seats and the Labour Party 10, Moshe Sharett became prime minister of Israel at the head of a left-wing coalition. Between 1953 and 1956, there were intermittent clashes along all of Israel's borders as Arab terrorism and breaches of the ceasefire resulted in Israeli counter-raids. Palestinian fedayeen attacks, often organized and sponsored by the Egyptians, were made from (Egyptian occupied) Gaza. Fedayeen attacks led to a growing cycle of violence as Israel launched reprisal attacks against Gaza. In 1954 the Uzi submachine gun first entered use by the Israel Defense Forces. In 1955 the Egyptian government began recruiting former Nazi rocket scientists for a missile program.

Archaeologist and General Yigael Yadin, purchased the Dead Sea Scrolls on behalf of the State of Israel. The entire first batch to be discovered were now owned by Israel and housed in the Shrine of the Book at the Israel Museum.

Sharett's government was brought down by the Lavon Affair, a crude plan to disrupt U.S.–Egyptian relations, involving Israeli agents planting bombs at American sites in Egypt.[109] The plan failed when eleven agents were arrested. Defense Minister Lavon was blamed despite his denial of responsibility. The Lavon affair led to Sharett's resignation and Ben-Gurion returned to the post of prime minister.

1955–1963: Ben-Gurion II

In 1956, the increasingly pro-Soviet President Nasser of Egypt, announced the nationalization of the (French and British owned) Suez Canal, which was Egypt's main source of foreign currency. Egypt also blockaded the Gulf of Aqaba preventing Israeli access to the Red Sea. Israel made a secret agreement with the French at Sèvres to coordinate military operations against Egypt. Britain and France had already begun secret preparations for military action. It has been alleged that the French also agreed to build a nuclear plant for the Israelis and that by 1968 this was able to produce nuclear weapons. Britain and France arranged for Israel to give them a pretext for seizing the Suez Canal. Israel was to attack Egypt, and Britain and France would then call on both sides to withdraw. When, as expected, the Egyptians refused, Anglo-French forces would invade to take control of the Canal.

Israeli forces, commanded by General Moshe Dayan, attacked Egypt on October 29, 1956. On October 30, Britain and France made their pre-arranged call for both sides to stop fighting and withdraw from the Canal area, and for them to be allowed to take up positions at key points on the Canal. Egypt refused and the allies commenced air strikes on October 31 aimed at neutralizing the Egyptian air force. By November 5 the Israelis had overrun the Sinai. The Anglo-French invasion began that day. There was uproar in the UN, with the United States and USSR for once in agreement in denouncing the actions of Israel, Britain and France. A demand for a ceasefire was reluctantly accepted on November 7.

At Egypt's request, the UN sent an Emergency Force (UNEF), consisting of 6,000 peacekeeping troops from 10 nations to supervise the ceasefire. From November 15, the UN troops marked out a zone across the Sinai to separate the Israeli and Egyptian forces. Upon receiving U.S. guarantees of Israeli access to the Suez Canal, freedom of access out of the Gulf of Aqaba and Egyptian action to stop Palestinian raids from Gaza, the Israelis withdrew to the Negev. In practice the Suez Canal remained closed to Israeli shipping. The conflict signalled the end of West-European dominance in the Middle East.

In 1956, two modern-orthodox (and religious-zionist) parties Mizrachi and Hapoel HaMizrachi joined to form the National Religious Party. The party was a component of every Israeli coalition until 1992, usually running the Ministry of Education. In October 1957 a deranged man threw a hand grenade inside the Knesset wounding Ben-Gurion. Mapai was once again victorious in the 1959 elections, increasing its number of seats to 47, Labour had 7. Ben-Gurion remained Prime Minister.

In 1959, there were renewed skirmishes along Israel's borders that continued throughout the early 1960s. The Arab League continued to maintain an economic boycott and there was a dispute over water rights in the River Jordan basin. With Soviet backing, the Arab states, particularly Egypt, were continuing to build up their forces. Israel's main military hardware supplier was France.

Rudolph Kastner, a minor political functionary, was accused of collaborating with the Nazis and sued his accuser. Kastner lost the trial and was assassinated two years later. In 1958 the Supreme Court exonerated him. In May 1960 the Mossad located Adolf Eichmann, one of the chief administrators of the Nazi Holocaust, in Argentina and kidnapped him to Israel. In 1961 he was put on trial, and after several months found guilty and sentenced to death. He was hanged in 1962 and is the only person ever sentenced to death by an Israeli court. Testimonies by Holocaust survivors at the trial and the extensive publicity that surrounded it has led the trial to be considered a turning point in public awareness of the Holocaust.

In 1961 a Herut no-confidence motion over the Lavon affair led to Ben-Gurion's resignation. Ben-Gurion declared that he would only accept office if Lavon was fired from the position of the head of Histadrut, Israel's labour union organization (due to his role in the Lavon Affair). His demands were accepted and Mapai won the 1961 election (42 seats keeping Ben-Gurion as PM) with a slight reduction in its share of the seats. Menachem Begin's Herut party and the Liberals came next with 17 seats each. In 1962 the Mossad began assassinating German rocket scientists working in Egypt after one of them reported the missile program was designed to carry chemical warheads. This action was condemned by Ben-Gurion and led to the Mossad director, Isser Harel, resignation. In 1963 Ben-Gurion quit again over the Lavon scandal. His attempts to make his party Mapai support him over the issue failed. Levi Eshkol became leader of Mapai and the new prime minister.

1963–1969: Eshkol

In 1963 Yigael Yadin began excavating Masada. In 1964, Egypt, Jordan and Syria developed a unified military command. Israel completed work on a national water carrier, a huge engineering project designed to transfer Israel's allocation of the Jordan river's waters towards the south of the country in realization of Ben-Gurion's dream of mass Jewish settlement of the Negev desert. The Arabs responded by trying to divert the headwaters of the Jordan, leading to growing conflict between Israel and Syria.

In 1964, Israeli Rabbinical authorities accepted that the Bene Israel of India were indeed Jewish and most of the remaining Indian Jews migrated to Israel. The 2,000-strong Jewish community of Cochin had already migrated in 1954. Ben-Gurion quit Mapai to form a new party Rafi, he was joined by Shimon Peres and Moshe Dayan. Begin's Herut party joined with the Liberals to form Gahal. Mapai and Labour united for the 1965 elections, winning 45 seats and maintaining Levi Eshkol as Prime Minister. Ben-Gurion's Rafi party received 10 seats, Gahal got 26 seats becoming the second largest party.

Until 1966, Israel's principal arms supplier was France, however in 1966, following the withdrawal from Algeria, Charles de Gaulle announced France would cease supplying Israel with arms (and refused to refund money paid for 50 warplanes). On February 5, 1966, the United States announced that it was taking over the former French and West German obligations, to maintain military "stabilization" in the Middle East. Included in the military hardware would be over 200 M48 tanks. In May of that year the U.S. also agreed to provide A-4 Skyhawk tactical aircraft to Israel. In 1966 security restrictions placed on Arab-Israelis were eased and efforts made to integrate them into Israeli life.

In 1966, Black and white TV broadcasts began. On May 15, 1967, the first public performance of Naomi Shemer's classic song "Jerusalem of Gold" took place and over the next few weeks it dominated the Israeli airwaves. Two days later Syria, Egypt and Jordan amassed troops along the Israeli borders, and Egypt closed the Straits of Tiran to Israeli shipping. Nasser demanded that the UNEF leave Sinai, threatening escalation to a full war. Egyptian radio broadcasts talked of a coming genocide. Israel responded by calling up its civilian reserves, bringing much of the Israeli economy to a halt. The Israelis set up a national unity coalition, including for the first time Menachem Begin's party, Herut, in a coalition. During a national radio broadcast, Prime Minister Levi Eshkol stammered, causing widespread fear in Israel. To calm public concern Moshe Dayan (Chief of Staff during the Sinai war) was appointed Defence Minister.

On the morning before Dayan was sworn in, June 5, 1967, the Israeli air force launched pre-emptive attacks destroying first the Egyptian air force, and then later the same day destroying the air forces of Jordan and Syria. Israel then defeated (almost successively) Egypt, Jordan and Syria. By June 11 the Arab forces were routed and all parties had accepted the cease-fire called for by UN Security Council Resolutions 235 and 236. Israel gained control of the Sinai Peninsula, the Gaza Strip, the Golan Heights, and the formerly Jordanian-controlled West Bank of the Jordan River. East Jerusalem was immediately arguably annexed by Israel and its population granted Israeli citizenship. Other areas occupied remained under military rule (Israeli civil law did not apply to them) pending a final settlement. The Golan was also annexed in 1981. On November 22, 1967, the Security Council adopted Resolution 242, the "land for peace" formula, which called for the establishment of a just and lasting peace based on Israeli withdrawal from territories occupied in 1967 in return for the end of all states of belligerency, respect for the sovereignty of all states in the area, and the right to live in peace within secure, recognized boundaries. The resolution was accepted by both sides, though with different interpretations, and has been the basis of all subsequent peace negotiations. After 1967 the U.S. began supplying Israel with aircraft and the Soviet block (except Romania) broke off relations with Israel. Antisemitic purges led to the final migration of the last Polish Jews to Israel.

For the first time since the end of the British Mandate, Jews could visit the Old City of Jerusalem and pray at the Western Wall (the holiest site in modern Judaism), to which they had been denied access by the Jordanians in contravention of the 1949 Armistice agreement. The four-meter-wide public alley beside the Wall was expanded into a massive plaza and worshippers were allowed to sit, or use other furniture, for the first time in centuries. In Hebron, Jews gained access to the Cave of the Patriarchs (the second most holy site in Judaism) for the first time since the 14th century (previously Jews were only allowed to pray at the entrance). A third Jewish holy site, Rachel's Tomb, in Bethlehem, also became accessible. Sinai oil fields made Israel self-sufficient in energy.

In 1968 Moshe Levinger led a group of Religious Zionists who created the first Jewish settlement, a town near Hebron called Kiryat Arba. There were no other religious settlements until after 1974. Ben-Gurion's Rafi party merged with the Labour-Mapai alliance. Ben-Gurion remained outside as an independent. In 1968, compulsory education was extended until the age of 16 for all citizens (it had been 14) and the government embarked on an extensive program of integration in education. In the major cities children from mainly Sephardi/Mizrahi neighbourhoods were bused to newly established middle schools in better areas. The system remained in place until after 2000. By 1970, over 400,000 public housing units had been built since 1949.

In March 1968, Israeli forces attacked the Palestinian militia, Fatah, at its base in the Jordanian town of Karameh. The attack was in response to land mines placed on Israeli roads. The Israelis retreated after destroying the camp. Despite heavy casualties, Palestinians claimed victory, while Fatah and the PLO (of which it formed part) became famous across the Arab world. In early 1969, fighting broke out between Egypt and Israel along the Suez Canal. In retaliation for repeated Egyptian shelling of Israeli positions along the Suez Canal, Israeli planes made deep strikes into Egypt in the 1969–1970 "War of Attrition".

1969–1974: Meir

In late 1969, Levi Eshkol died in office of a heart attack and Golda Meir became Prime Minister with the largest percentage of the vote ever won by an Israeli party, winning 56 of the 120 seats after the 1969 election. Meir was the first female prime minister of Israel and the first woman to have headed a Middle Eastern state in modern times. Gahal remained on 26 seats, and was the second largest party.

In December 1969, Israeli naval commandos took five missile boats during the night from Cherbourg Harbour in France. Israel had paid for the boats but the French had refused to supply them. In July 1970 the Israelis shot down five Soviet fighters that were aiding the Egyptians in the course of the War of Attrition. Following this, the U.S. worked to calm the situation and in August 1970 a cease fire was agreed.

In September 1970 King Hussein of Jordan drove the Palestine Liberation Organization out of his country. On September 18, 1970, Syrian tanks invaded Jordan, intending to aid the PLO. At the request of the U.S., Israel moved troops to the border and threatened Syria, causing the Syrians to withdraw. The center of PLO activity then shifted to Lebanon, where the 1969 Cairo agreement gave the Palestinians autonomy within the south of the country. The area controlled by the PLO became known by the international press and locals as "Fatahland" and contributed to the 1975–1990 Lebanese Civil War. The event also led to Hafez al-Assad taking power in Syria. Egyptian President Nasser died immediately after and was succeeded by Anwar Sadat.

Increased Soviet antisemitism and enthusiasm generated by the 1967 victory led to a wave of Soviet Jews applying to emigrate to Israel. Those who left could only take two suitcases. Most Jews were refused exit visas and persecuted by the authorities. Some were arrested and sent to Gulag camps, becoming known as Prisoners of Zion. During 1971, violent demonstrations by the Israeli Black Panthers, made the Israeli public aware of resentment among Mizrahi Jews at ongoing discrimination and social gaps. In 1972 the U.S. Jewish Mafia leader, Meyer Lansky, who had taken refuge in Israel, was deported to the United States.

At the Munich Olympics, 11 members of the Israeli team were taken hostage by Palestinian terrorists. A botched German rescue attempt led to the death of all 11 Israeli athletes and coaches. Five of the terrorists were shot and three survived unharmed. The three surviving Palestinians were released without charge by the German authorities a month later. The Israeli government responded with a bombing, an assassination campaign against the organizers of the massacre and a raid on the PLO headquarters in Lebanon (led by future Prime Minister, Ehud Barak).

In 1972 the new Egyptian President Anwar Sadat expelled the Soviet advisers from Egypt. This and frequent invasion exercises by Egypt and Syria led to Israeli complacency about the threat from these countries. In addition the desire not to be held responsible for initiating conflict and an election campaign highlighting security, led to an Israeli failure to mobilize, despite receiving warnings of an impending attack.

The Yom Kippur War (also known as the October War) began on October 6, 1973 (the Jewish Day of Atonement), the holiest day in the Jewish calendar and a day when adult Jews are required to fast. The Syrian and Egyptian armies launched a well-planned surprise attack against the unprepared Israeli Defense Forces. For the first few days there was a great deal of uncertainty about Israel's capacity to repel the invaders. Both the Soviets and the Americans (at the orders of Richard Nixon) rushed arms to their allies. The Syrians were repulsed by the tiny remnant of the Israeli tank force on the Golan and, although the Egyptians captured a strip of territory in Sinai, Israeli forces crossed the Suez Canal, trapping the Egyptian Third Army in Sinai and were 100 kilometres from Cairo. The war cost Israel over 2,000 dead, resulted in a heavy arms bill (for both sides) and made Israelis more aware of their vulnerability. It also led to heightened superpower tension. Following the war, both Israelis and Egyptians showed greater willingness to negotiate. On January 18, 1974, extensive diplomacy by U.S. Secretary of State Henry Kissinger led to a Disengagement of Forces agreement with the Egyptian government and on May 31 with the Syrian government.

The war led the Saudi government to initiate the 1973 oil crisis, an oil embargo in conjunction with OPEC, against countries trading with Israel. Severe shortages led to massive increases in the price of oil, and as a result, many countries broke off relations with Israel or downgraded relations, and Israel was banned from participation in the Asian Games and other Asian sporting events.

Prior to the December 1973 elections, Gahal and a number of right-wing parties united to form the Likud (led by Begin). In the December 1973 elections, Labour won 51 seats, leaving Golda Meir as Prime Minister. The Likud won 39 seats.

In May 1974, Palestinians attacked a school in Ma'alot, holding 102 children hostage. Twenty-two children were killed. In November 1974 the PLO was granted observer status at the UN and Yasser Arafat addressed the General Assembly. Later that year the Agranat Commission, appointed to assess responsibility for Israel's lack of preparedness for the war, exonerated the government of responsibility, and held the Chief of Staff and head of military intelligence responsible. Despite the report, public anger at the Government led to Golda Meir's resignation.

1974–1977: Rabin I

Following Meir's resignation, Yitzhak Rabin (Chief of Staff during the Six Day War) became prime minister. Modern Orthodox Jews (Religious Zionist followers of the teachings of Rabbi Kook), formed the Gush Emunim movement, and began an organized drive to settle the West Bank and Gaza Strip. In November 1975 the United Nations General Assembly, under the guidance of Austrian Secretary General Kurt Waldheim, adopted Resolution 3379, which asserted Zionism to be a form of racism. The General Assembly rescinded this resolution in December 1991 with Resolution 46/86. In March 1976 there was a massive strike by Israeli-Arabs in protest at a government plan to expropriate land in the Galilee.

In July 1976, an Air France plane carrying 260 people was hijacked by Palestinian and German terrorists and flown to Uganda, then ruled by Idi Amin Dada. There, the Germans separated the Jewish passengers from the non-Jewish passengers, releasing the non-Jews. The hijackers threatened to kill the remaining, 100-odd Jewish passengers (and the French crew who had refused to leave). Despite the distances involved, Rabin ordered a daring rescue operation in which the kidnapped Jews were freed. UN Secretary General Waldheim described the raid as "a serious violation of the national sovereignty of a United Nations member state" (meaning Uganda). Waldheim was a former Nazi and suspected war criminal, with a record of offending Jewish sensibilities.

In 1976, the ongoing Lebanese Civil War led Israel to allow South Lebanese to cross the border and work in Israel. In January 1977, French authorities arrested Abu Daoud, the planner of the Munich massacre, releasing him a few days later. In March 1977 Anatoly Sharansky, a prominent Refusenik and spokesman for the Moscow Helsinki Group, was sentenced to 13 years' hard labour.

Rabin resigned on April 1977 after it emerged that his wife maintained a dollar account in the United States (illegal at the time), which had been opened while Rabin was Israeli ambassador. The incident became known as the Dollar Account affair. Shimon Peres informally replaced him as prime minister, leading the Alignment in the subsequent elections.

1977–1983: Begin

In a surprise result, the Likud led by Menachem Begin won 43 seats in the 1977 elections (Labour got 32 seats). This was the first time in Israeli history that the government was not led by the left. A key reason for the victory was anger among Mizrahi Jews at discrimination, which was to play an important role in Israeli politics for many years. Talented small town Mizrahi social activists, unable to advance in the Labour party, were readily embraced by Begin. Moroccan-born David Levy and Iranian-born Moshe Katzav were part of a group who won Mizrahi support for Begin. Many Labour voters voted for the Democratic Movement for Change (15 seats) in protest at high-profile corruption cases. The party joined in coalition with Begin and disappeared at the next election.

In addition to starting a process of healing the Mizrahi–Ashkenazi divide, Begin's government included Ultra-Orthodox Jews and was instrumental in healing the Zionist–Ultra-Orthodox rift, however it did so at the cost of expanding the exemption from military service to all Haredi Jewish students of military age. This led to creation of a huge class of unemployed Haredi Jews (the exemption was conditional on attendance of a religious seminary, so they kept studying until they were too old for military service). By remaining students, they were a massive burden on the state, while also failing to participate in the military burden.

Begin's liberalization of the economy led to hyper-inflation (around 150% inflation) but enabled Israel to begin receiving U.S. financial aid. Begin actively supported Gush Emunim's efforts to settle the West Bank and Jewish settlements in the occupied territories received government support, thus laying the grounds for intense conflict with the Palestinian population of the occupied territories.

In November 1977, Egyptian President Anwar Sadat broke 30 years of hostility with Israel by visiting Jerusalem at the invitation of Israeli Prime Minister Menachem Begin. Sadat's two-day visit included a speech before the Knesset and was a turning point in the history of the conflict. The Egyptian leader created a new psychological climate in the Middle East in which peace between Israel and its Arab neighbours seemed possible. Sadat recognized Israel's right to exist and established the basis for direct negotiations between Egypt and Israel. Following Sadat's visit, 350 Yom Kippur War veterans organized the Peace Now movement to encourage Israeli governments to make peace with the Arabs.

In March 1978, eleven armed Lebanese Palestinians reached Israel in boats and hijacked a bus carrying families on a day outing, killing 38 people, including 13 children. The attackers opposed the Egyptian–Israeli peace process. Three days later, Israeli forces crossed into Lebanon beginning Operation Litani. After passage of United Nations Security Council Resolution 425, calling for Israeli withdrawal and the creation of the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL) peace-keeping force, Israel withdrew its troops.

In September 1978, U.S. President Jimmy Carter invited President Sadat and Prime Minister Begin to meet with him at Camp David, and on September 11 they agreed on a framework for peace between Israel and Egypt, and a comprehensive peace in the Middle East. It set out broad principles to guide negotiations between Israel and the Arab states. It also established guidelines for a West Bank–Gaza transitional regime of full autonomy for the Palestinians residing in these territories, and for a peace treaty between Egypt and Israel. The treaty was signed on March 26, 1979, by Begin and Sadat, with President Carter signing as witness. Under the treaty, Israel returned the Sinai peninsula to Egypt in April 1982. The final piece of territory to be repatriated was Taba, adjacent to Eilat, returned in 1989. The Arab League reacted to the peace treaty by suspending Egypt from the organization and moving its headquarters from Cairo to Tunis. Sadat was assassinated in 1981 by Islamic fundamentalist members of the Egyptian army who opposed peace with Israel. Following the agreement Israel and Egypt became the two largest recipients of U.S. military and financial aid (Iraq and Afghanistan have now overtaken them).

In December 1978 the Israeli Merkava battle tank entered use with the IDF. In 1979, over 40,000 Iranian Jews migrated to Israel, escaping the Islamic Revolution there. On June 30, 1981, the Israeli air force destroyed the Osirak nuclear reactor that France was building for Iraq. Three weeks later, Begin won yet again, in the 1981 elections (48 seats Likud, 47 Labour). Ariel Sharon was made defence minister. The new government annexed the Golan Heights and banned the national airline from flying on the Sabbath.

In the decades following the 1948 war, Israel's border with Lebanon was quiet compared to its borders with other neighbours. But the 1969 Cairo agreement gave the PLO a free hand to attack Israel from South Lebanon. The area was governed by the PLO independently of the Lebanese Government and became known as "Fatahland" (Fatah was the largest faction in the PLO). Palestinian irregulars constantly shelled the Israeli north, especially the town of Kiryat Shmona, which was a Likud stronghold inhabited primarily by Jews who had fled the Arab world. Lack of control over Palestinian areas was an important factor in causing civil war in Lebanon.

In June 1982, the attempted assassination of Shlomo Argov, the ambassador to Britain, was used as a pretext for an Israeli invasion aiming to drive the PLO out of the southern half of Lebanon. Sharon agreed with Chief of Staff Raphael Eitan to expand the invasion deep into Lebanon even though the cabinet had only authorized a 40 kilometre deep invasion. The invasion became known as the 1982 Lebanon War and the Israeli army occupied Beirut, the only time an Arab capital has been occupied by Israel. Some of the Shia and Christian population of South Lebanon welcomed the Israelis, as PLO forces had maltreated them, but Lebanese resentment of Israeli occupation grew over time and the Shia became gradually radicalized under Iranian guidance. Constant casualties among Israeli soldiers and Lebanese civilians led to growing opposition to the war in Israel.

In August 1982, the PLO withdrew its forces from Lebanon (moving to Tunisia). Israel helped engineer the election of a new Lebanese president, Bashir Gemayel, who agreed to recognize Israel and sign a peace treaty. Gemayal was assassinated before an agreement could be signed, and one day later Phalangist Christian forces led by Elie Hobeika entered two Palestinian refugee camps and massacred the occupants. The massacres led to the biggest demonstration ever in Israel against the war, with as many as 400,000 people (almost 10% of the population) gathering in Tel Aviv. In 1983, an Israeli public inquiry found that Israel's defence minister, Sharon, was indirectly but personally responsible for the massacres. It also recommended that he never again be allowed to hold the post (it did not forbid him from being Prime Minister). In 1983, the May 17 Agreement was signed between Israel and Lebanon, paving the way for an Israeli withdrawal from Lebanese territory through a few stages. Israel continued to operate against the PLO until its eventual departure in 1985, and kept a small force stationed in Southern Lebanon in support of the South Lebanon Army until May 2000.

1983–1992: Shamir I; Peres I; Shamir II

In September 1983, Begin resigned and was succeeded by Yitzhak Shamir as prime minister. The 1984 election was inconclusive, and led to a power sharing agreement between Shimon Peres of the Alignment (44 seats) and Shamir of Likud (41 seats). Peres was prime minister from 1984 to 1986 and Shamir from 1986 to 1988. In 1984, continual discrimination against Sephardi Ultra-Orthodox Jews by the Ashkenazi Ultra-Orthodox establishment led political activist Aryeh Deri to leave the Agudat Israel party and join former chief Rabbi Ovadia Yosef in forming Shas, a new party aimed at the non-Ashkenazi Ultra-Orthodox vote. The party won 4 seats in the first election it contested and over the next twenty years was the third largest party in the Knesset. Shas established a nationwide network of free Sephardi Orthodox schools. In 1984, during a severe famine in Ethiopia, 8,000 Ethiopian Jews were secretly transported to Israel. In 1986 Natan Sharansky, a famous Russian human rights activist and Zionist refusenik (denied an exit visa) was released from the Gulag in return for two Soviet spies.

In June 1985, Israel withdrew most of its troops from Lebanon, leaving a residual Israeli force and an Israeli-supported militia in southern Lebanon as a "security zone" and buffer against attacks on its northern territory. Since then, IDF fought for many years against Hezbollah Shia organization, which became a growing threat to Israel. By July 1985, Israel's inflation, buttressed by complex index linking of salaries, had reached 480% per annum and was the highest in the world. Peres introduced emergency control of prices and cut government expenditure successfully bringing inflation under control. The currency (known as the Israeli lira until 1980) was replaced and renamed the Israeli new shekel. In October 1985, Israel responded to a Palestinian terrorist attack in Cyprus by bombing the PLO headquarters in Tunis. Growing Israeli settlement and continuing occupation of the West Bank and Gaza Strip, led to the first Palestinian Intifada (uprising) in 1987, which lasted until the Madrid Conference of 1991, despite Israeli attempts to suppress it. Human rights abuses by Israeli troops led a group of Israelis to form B'Tselem, an organization devoted to improving awareness and compliance with human rights requirements in Israel.

In August 1987, the Israeli government cancelled the IAI Lavi project, an attempt to develop an independent Israeli fighter aircraft. The Israelis found themselves unable to sustain the huge development costs, and faced U.S. opposition to a project that threatened U.S. influence in Israel and U.S. global military ascendancy. In September 1988, Israel launched an Ofeq reconsaissance satellite into orbit, using a Shavit rocket, thus becoming one of only eight countries possessing a capacity to independently launch satellites into space (two more have since developed this ability). The Alignment and Likud remained neck and neck in the 1988 elections (39:40 seats). Shamir successfully formed a national unity coalition with the Labour Alignment. In March 1990, Alignment leader Shimon Peres engineered a defeat of the government in a non-confidence vote and then tried to form a new government. He failed and Shamir became prime minister at the head of a right-wing coalition.

In 1990, the Soviet Union finally permitted free emigration of Soviet Jews to Israel. Prior to this, Jews trying to leave the USSR faced persecution; those who succeeded arrived as refugees. Over the next few years some one million Soviet citizens migrated to Israel. Although there was concern that some of the new immigrants had only a very tenuous connection to Judaism, and many were accompanied by non-Jewish relatives, this massive wave of migration slowly transformed Israel, bringing large numbers of highly educated Soviet Jews and creating a powerful Russian culture in Israel.

In August 1990, Iraq invaded Kuwait, triggering the Gulf War between Iraq and a large allied force, led by the United States. Iraq attacked Israel with 39 Scud missiles. Israel did not retaliate at request of the U.S., fearing that if Israel responded against Iraq, other Arab nations might desert the allied coalition. Israel provided gas masks for both the Palestinian population and Israeli citizens. In May 1991, during a 36 hour period, 15,000 Beta Israel (Ethiopian Jews) were secretly airlifted to Israel. The coalition's victory in the Gulf War opened new possibilities for regional peace, and in October 1991 the U.S. President, George H.W. Bush and Soviet Union Premier, Mikhail Gorbachev, jointly convened a historic meeting in Madrid of Israeli, Lebanese, Jordanian, Syrian, and Palestinian leaders. Shamir opposed the idea but agreed in return for loan guarantees to help with absorption of immigrants from the former Soviet Union. His participation in the conference led to the collapse of his (right-wing) coalition.

Development of Israel1950 1960 1970 1980 1990

Population (millions) 1.4 2.1 3 3.9 4.8

 % of world's Jews 7% 20% 25% 30%

GDP per capita 17,000 27,000 45,000 58,000 65,000

In the whole, the democratic state of Israel, built 1948, had five big wars with Arabs and protected its independence. It was a new stage of Jewish history, which is called by us Jews-4. Besides it, many Jews (Jews-3) continued to live abroad. A lot of them preferred to return to their historic motherland.

Questions:

1. What were the main features of the Israel history in this time?

53. Islamic countries in 1950-1990.

a) Countries of the Balkan and the Asia Minor.

Albania:

The Communists with Enver Hoxha (1908-1985) as its secretary began to nationalise industry in Albania and at first relations with Yugoslavia were friendly. However in 1948 Yugoslavia isolated itself from the Soviet Union and the other Eastern European Communist countries. Albania promptly ended economic agreements with Yugoslavia and in 1950 they broke off diplomatic relations (they were restored in 1953).

Then in the late 1950s relations between the Soviet Union and China grew worse. Albania sided with China and in the late 1950s the Chinese increased their economic aid to Albania. Finally in 1961 Albania broke off diplomatic relations with the Soviet Union. 1968 Albania did not support the Soviet invasion to the Czechoslovakia and leaved the Warsaw treaty.

After Mao died in 1976 relations between Albania and China cooled and ordinary people were completely isolated from the rest of the world. Enver Hoxha died in 1985 but the tyrannical regime in Albania continued.

Turkey:

Turkey remained neutral during most of World War II but entered on the side of the Allies on February 23, 1945, as a ceremonial gesture and in 1945 became a charter member of the United Nations. Difficulties faced by Greece after the war in quelling a communist rebellion, along with demands by the Soviet Union for military bases in the Turkish Straits, prompted the United States to declare the Truman Doctrine in 1947. The doctrine enunciated American intentions to guarantee the security of Turkey and Greece, and resulted in large-scale U.S. military and economic support.

After participating with the United Nations forces in the Korean War, Turkey joined NATO in 1952, becoming a bulwark against Soviet expansion into the Mediterranean. Following a decade of intercommunal violence on the island of Cyprus and the Greek military coup of July 1974, overthrowing President Makarios and installing Nikos Sampson as a dictator, Turkey under Prime Minister Ecevit invaded the Republic of Cyprus in 1974. Nine years later the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) was established. Turkey is the only country that recognises the TRNC.

The single-party period was followed by multiparty democracy after 1945. The Turkish democracy was interrupted by military coups d'état in 1960, 1971 and 1980. In 1984, the PKK began an insurgency against the Turkish government; the conflict, which has claimed over 40,000 lives, continues today. Since the liberalization of the Turkish economy during the 1980s, the country has enjoyed stronger economic growth and greater political stability.

In the whole, the fates of the countries, which had belonged earlier to the Ottoman empire, were different in this time. Albania became Communist and was for a some time a member of the Warsaw treaty. Turkey remained democratic and became a member of the NATO.

b) Arabic countries of the Near East.

Syria:

In 29 May 1945 , French troops attacked the Syrian Parliament building in Damascus , sparking more anger and demonstrations. The matter was discussed in the United Nations Security Council, which came up with a resolution demanding France 's withdrawal from Syria . The French had to comply; their last soldier left Syria on 17 April 1946 , which was chosen to be Syria 's National Day.

 The early years of independence were marked by political instability. In 1948, the Syrian army was sent to Palestine to fight along with other Arab armies against the newly created State of Israel. The Arabs lost the war, and Israel occupied 78 percent of the area of historical Palestine . In July 1949, Syria was the last Arab country to sign an armistice agreement with Israel . However, It was only the beginning of the Arab-Israeli conflict.

 In 1949, Syria 's national government was overthrown by a military coup d'etat led by Hussni al-Zaim. Later that year Zaim was overthrown by his colleague Sami al-Hinnawi. Few months later, Hinnawi was overthrown by Colonel Adib al-Sheeshakli. The latter continued to rule the country until 1954, when growing public opposition forced him to resign and leave the country. The national government was restored, but again to face instability, this time coming from abroad. In the mid 1950s, Syria 's relation with the West witnessed some tension with the improving Syrian-Soviet relations. In 1957, Turkey , a close ally of the US and a member of the NATO, massed its troops on the Syrian borders threatening to invade the country.

 The western threat was also one of the reasons that helped achieve Syria 's union with Egypt under the United Arab Republic (UAR) in February 1958, with Egyptian Gamal Abdul Nasser as president. Nasser 's condition to accept union with Syria was dissolving all Syrian political parties. This was one of many reasons that led to the collapse in of the UAR on September 28, 1961 , with a bloodless military coup in Damascus .

 In 8 March 1963 , the Baath Arab Socialist Party came to power in a coup known in Syria as the March Revolution. The Baathists dissolved the Parliament and introduced a one-party regime that was destablized by conflicts within the Baath itself. In February 1966, the right wing of Baath assumed leadership of the party, establishing radical Salah Jadid as the strongman of the country.

 In the spring of 1967, severe clashes erupted on the borders between Syria and Israel . In April, Israeli officials publicly threatened to invade Syria . Those threats were among other major events that led to the Six Days War between Israel and its neighboring Arab countries. On 5 June 1967, Israel started its war against the Arabs, first by invading the Egyptian Sinai Peninsula and the West Bank of Jordan and then on June 10, the Syrian Golan Heights. Within two days of fighting, Syria had lost the strategic region including its main city of Quneitra . On June 11, the warring parties accepted the UN's call for cease-fire. Later in 1967, the UN security council issued its famous 242 resolution calling for complete Israeli withdrawal from the territories occupied in the Six Day War, in exchange for peace talks and Arab recognition of Israel 's right to exist.

 November 16, 1970 ; Hafez al-Assad, then the defense minister, led the Correction Movement that brought Syria stability and security after years of political disturbance. Assad, elected president in 1971 with an overwhelming majority, started to get the nation ready to fight for its occupied land. He mobilized the major political powers in Syria under the National Progressive Front, and got the People's Council (Parliament) back to work. The Syrians did not wait too long. On October, 6th 1973 , Syria and Egypt launched a surprising attack against the Israeli forces in the occupied Sinai and Golan Heights . In few days, Syrian troops nearly managed to liberate all the occupied territories, but Israeli forces managed to recover with a massive US airlfit. Syria soon found itself fighting US and Israel together; and with the fighting on the Egyptian front ceased, the Syrians accepted a UN brokered cease-fire. The security council issued another resolution, 338, calling for Israeli withdrawal from Arab territories and for peace talks to achieve a just peace in the Middle East .

 Obviously, the Syrians did not want the war to end this way. In early 1974 they launched an attrition war against the Israeli forces in the Golan. The continuous fighting and the Arab moral victory pushed the US into mediating a settlement between Syria and Israel . The US secretary of state Henry Kissinger succeeded in reaching an agreement to disengage Syrian and Israeli troops in the Golan. According to the agreement, Syria regained control over a strip of territory in the Golan including the major city of Quneitra . President Assad raised the Syrian flag over the liberated land on June 26, 1974 , but the Syrians were surprised to find that Quneitra and many other towns and villages in the Golan were deliberately destroyed by the Israelis. The city was never rebuilt. UN troops were deployed in the liberated area to prevent any violations of the cease-fire.

 In 1975, the Lebanese civil war started. In 1976, Syrian troops were deployed in Lebanon upon request from the Lebanese Government. The troops in Lebanon stood against the invading Israeli army in 1982, and full-scale land and air battles took place between the two sides. In 1990, Syria and its allies in Lebanon succeeded in putting an end to the 15-year-old civil war, and Syrian troops remained in Lebanon to maintain security and stability. In 1978, Egyptian President Anwar al-Sadat signed a separate peace agreement with Israel , which was a serious blow to Arab solidarity. Syria was among other Arab nations that opposed Sadat's move. If Israelis really wants peace, Assad proposed, they should simply withdraw from all the territories occupied in 1967.

 In 1980, Iraq launched a war against Iran . Earlier in 1979, the Islamic revolution in Iran had ended its alliance with the west and declared its support for the Palestinian cause. Syria thought this was a wrong war, at a wrong time and against the wrong enemy. Very few Arab countries supported the Syrian position. Only two years after his war against Iran ended with nothing but heave losses and casualities, Iraqi President Saddam Hussein invaded the small Arabian Gulf state of Kuwait in August 1990, sparking wide spread international condemnation. Syria participated in the US-led international coalition that was formed to defend Saudi Arabia and liberate Kuwait . The Gulf War that followed resulted in the destruction of the Iraqi and imposing harsh international sanctions on Iraq . Another major Arab power was now practically out of the conflict with Israel .

Lebanon:

Lebanon gained independence in 1943, establishing a unique political system – "confessionalism" – that is a power-sharing mechanism based on religious communities. Bechara El Khoury (independent Lebanon's first President) and Riad El-Solh (Lebanon's first Prime Minister) are considered the founders of the modern Republic of Lebanon and are national heroes for having led the country's independence. French troops withdrew from Lebanon in 1946.

Before the Lebanese Civil War (1975–1990), the country experienced a period of relative calm and renowned prosperity, driven by tourism, agriculture, and banking. Because of its financial power and diversity, Lebanon was known in its heyday as the "Switzerland of the East". It attracted large numbers of tourists, such that the capital Beirut was referred to as "Paris of the Middle East." At the end of the war, there were extensive efforts to revive the economy and rebuild national infrastructure.

Iraq:

On 1 April 1941, Rashid Ali al-Gaylani and members of the Golden Square staged a coup d'état and overthrew the government of 'Abd al-Ilah. During the subsequent Anglo-Iraqi War, the United Kingdom invaded Iraq for fear that the Rashid Ali government might cut oil supplies to Western nations because of his links to the Axis powers. The war started on 2 May and an armistice was signed 31 May.

A military occupation followed the restoration of the pre-coup government of the Hashemite monarchy. The occupation ended on 26 October 1947. The rulers during the occupation and the remainder of the Hashemite monarchy were Nuri as-Said, the autocratic Prime Minister, who also ruled from 1930–1932, and 'Abd al-Ilah, the former Regent who now served as an adviser to King Faisal II.

Republic and Ba'athist Iraq

The 14 July Revolution in 1958

In 1958 a coup d'etat known as the 14 July Revolution led to the end of the monarchy. Brigadier General Abd al-Karim Qasim assumed power, but he was overthrown by Colonel Abdul Salam Arif in a February 1963 coup. After his death in 1966 he was succeeded by his brother, Abdul Rahman Arif, who was overthrown by the Ba'ath Party in 1968. Ahmed Hassan al-Bakr became the first Ba'ath President of Iraq but then the movement gradually came under the control of Saddam Hussein, who acceded to the presidency and control of the Revolutionary Command Council (RCC), then Iraq's supreme executive body, in July 1979.

After the success of the 1979 Iranian Revolution, Saddam invaded Iran a year and a half later, initiating the Iran–Iraq War (or First Gulf War). The war ended in stalemate in 1988, largely due to foreign support for Iraq. Between half a million and 1.5 million people from both sides died in the 1980–1988 war. In 1981, Israeli aircraft bombed an Iraqi nuclear materials testing reactor as part of Operation Opera. In the final stages of Iran–Iraq War, the Ba'athist Iraqi regime led the Al-Anfal Campaign, a genocidal campaign that targeted Iraqi Kurds, and led to the killing of 50,000 – 100,000 civilians.

Jordan:

Jordan finally became independent in 1946 and Abdullah became king. However King Abdullah was assassinated in 1951. He was replaced by his son Talal. In 1952 he was followed by Hussein. During the 1960s and 1970s economic growth took place in Jordan. Martial law was declared in 1967 but elections were held in 1989.

Saudi Arabia:

Since 1932, Abdul Aziz, and, after his death in 1953, five of his sons in succession have ruled Saudi Arabia as an absolute monarchy. His immediate successor Saud, facing opposition from the rest of the royal family, was replaced by Faisal in 1964. Until his murder by a relative in 1975, Faisal presided over a period of growth and modernization fueled by oil wealth. Saudi Arabia's role in the 1973 oil crisis and, the subsequent rise in the price of oil, dramatically increased the country's political significance and wealth. The reign of his successor, Khalid, saw the first major signs of dissent with the seizure of the Grand Mosque in Mecca by Islamist extremists in 1979. Fahd became king in 1982 and, during his reign, Saudi Arabia became the largest oil producer in the world. However, internal tensions increased when the country allied itself with the United States, and others, in the Gulf War of 1991.

Yemen:

In 1962 North Yemen became officially a republic. South Yemen was, however, still in the clutches of the British Empire. When the British totally pulled out from Yemeni soil in 1967, this part of Yemen established its own government and officially became South Yemen. In 1970, South Yemen became a Communist state where it adopted a Communist form of government.

In 1980, PDRY president Abdul Fattah Ismail resigned and went into exile. His successor, Ali Nasir Muhammad, took a less interventionist stance toward both North Yemen and neighbouring Oman. On January 13, 1986, a violent struggle, known as South Yemen Civil War began in Aden between Ali Nasir's supporters and supporters of the returned Ismail, who wanted power back. Fighting lasted for more than a month and resulted in thousands of casualties, Ali Nasir's ouster, and Ismail's death. Some 60,000 people, including the deposed Ali Nasir, fled to the YAR.

Efforts toward unification proceeded from 1988. Although the governments of the PDRY and the YAR declared that they approved a future union in 1972, little progress was made toward unification, and relations were often strained.In May 1988, the YAR and PDRY governments came to an understanding that considerably reduced tensions including agreement to renew discussions concerning unification, to establish a joint oil exploration area along their undefined border, to demilitarize the border, and to allow Yemenis unrestricted border passage on the basis of only a national identification card.In November 1989, the leaders of the YAR (Ali Abdullah Saleh) and the PDRY (Ali Salim al-Baidh) agreed on a draft unity constitution originally drawn up in 1981.

 In 1990, the two Yemen finally realized that it was high time to unite. In May 22, 1990, North and South Yemen officially became one and since then has been known officially as the Republic of Yemen.

Oman:

The sultans and imams of Oman clashed continuously throughout the 20th century until 1959, when the last Ibadi imam was evicted from the country. In a palace coup on July 23, 1970, the sultan, Sa'id bin Taimur, who had ruled since 1932, was overthrown by his son, who promised to establish a modern government and use newfound oil wealth to aid the people of this very isolated state. Oman joined the Arab League and the United Nations in 1971.

In the whole, the Arabic countries of the region (including United Arabic Emirates, Qatar, Quwait and Bahrain) grew economically because of oil and gas export, but were developed politically at two different lines. The fist line was followed by Syria and Iraq. It was a line of the Arabic socialism (the "third way"), partly supported by the Soviet Union. South Yemen was for a some time even led by a Communist regime. Another countries were more conservative and monarchist and were supported mostly by the United States.

с) Middle East.

Iran:

In 1951, after the assassination of prime minister Ali Razmara, Dr. Mohammad Mosaddegh was elected prime minister by a parliamentary vote which was then ratified by the Shah. As prime minister, Mosaddegh became enormously popular in Iran after he nationalized Iran's petroleum industry and oil reserves. In response, the British government, headed by Winston Churchill, embargoed Iranian oil and successfully enlisted the United States to join in a plot to depose the democratically elected government of Mosaddegh. In 1953 US President Dwight D. Eisenhower authorized Operation Ajax. The operation, supported by the Shah, was successful, and Mosaddegh was arrested on 19 August 1953. The coup was the first time the US had openly overthrown an elected, civilian government of another sovereign state.

After Operation Ajax, Shah Mohammad Reza Pahlavi favoured American and British oil interests and his rule became increasingly autocratic. With American support, the Shah was able to rapidly modernize the Iranian infrastructure and military. However, his rule was also corrupt and repressive. Arbitrary arrests and torture by his secret police, SAVAK, were used to crushed all forms of political opposition. Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini became an active critic of the Shah's White Revolution and publicly denounced the government.

Khomeini was arrested and imprisoned for 18 months. After his release in 1964, Khomeini publicly criticized the United States government. The Shah sent him into exile. He went first to Turkey, then to Iraq and finally to France. While in exile, Khomeini continued to denounce the Shah.

By the mid-1970s, there was growing unrest with the Shah's repressive regime. The Iranian Revolution, also known as the Islamic Revolution,began in January 1978 with the first major demonstrations against the Shah. Minor political reforms and the release of some political prisoners in 1978 failed to satisfy the growing opposition. In November 1978, the Shah imposed martial law and implemented a new crackdown in an attempt to crush opposition. After strikes and demonstrations paralyzed the country and its economy, the Shah fled the country in January 1979 and Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini returned from exile to Tehran. His departure was tantamount to abdication. The Pahlavi dynasty collapsed ten days later, on 11 February, when Iran's military declared itself "neutral". Armed civilians and rebel troops overwhelmed troops loyal to the Shah in a climatic 3-days of street fighting. Iran officially became an Islamic Republic on 1 April 1979, when Iranians overwhelmingly approved a national referendum to make it so. In parallel nation wide uprisings against the new regime erupted in Kordestan, Khuzestan, Balochistan and other areas, though were eventually subdued, with some lasting until late 1980.

In December 1979, the country approved a theocratic constitution, whereby Khomeini became Supreme Leader of the country. The speed and success of the revolution surprised many throughout the world,as it had not been precipitated by a military defeat, a financial crisis, or a peasant rebellion. Although both nationalists and Marxists joined with Islamic traditionalists to overthrow the Shah, tens of thousands were killed and executed by the Islamic regime afterward.

 Ayatollah Khomeini, founder of the Islamic Republic of Iran

As a beneficiary of the exploitation of Iran's oil reserves, the USA had always been a strong supporter of the Shah's regime. Therefore, Iran – United States relations deteriorated rapidly as a result of the revolution. On 4 November 1979, a group of Iranian students seized US embassy personnel, labeling the embassy a "den of spies". They accused its personnel of being CIA agents plotting to overthrow the revolutionary government, as the CIA had done to Mosaddegh in 1953. While the student ringleaders had not asked for permission from Khomeini to seize the embassy, Khomeini nonetheless supported the embassy takeover after hearing of its success. Thirteen (being female and/or African American) of the 66 hostages were released after a couple of weeks. The remaining hostages were held for 444 days. Attempts by the Jimmy Carter administration to negotiate for their release or rescue them were unsuccessful. In January 1981 the hostages were finally set free according to the Algiers Accords.

Iraqi leader Saddam Hussein decided to take advantage of what he perceived to be disorder in the wake of the Iranian Revolution and its unpopularity with Western governments. The once-strong Iranian military had been disbanded during the revolution. Saddam sought to expand Iraq's access to the Persian Gulf by acquiring territories that Iraq had claimed earlier from Iran during the Shah's rule. Of chief importance to Iraq was Khuzestan, which not only has a substantial Arab population, but boasted rich oil fields as well. On the unilateral behalf of the United Arab Emirates, the islands of Abu Musa and the Greater and Lesser Tunbs became objectives as well. At this stage Saddam Hussein enjoyed the support of the USA, the Gulf States and many leading states in the West who were hostile to the Iranian Revolution. On 22 September 1980 the Iraqi army invaded Iran at Khuzestan, precipitating the Iran–Iraq War.

Although Saddam Hussein's forces made several early advances, by 1982, and after bitter fighting, the Iranian forces managed to drive the Iraqi army back into Iraq. Despite receiving large amounts of foreign financial and military aid (including chemical weapons), all of Saddam's subsequent offensives were thrown back. The war continued until 1988, when Khomeini, in his words, "drank the cup of poison" and accepted a truce mediated by the UN. The total Iranian casualties in the war were estimated to be between 500,000 and 1,000,000; with more than 100,000 Iranians being victims of Iraq's chemical weapons. Almost all relevant international agencies have confirmed that Saddam engaged in chemical warfare to blunt the Iranian counter-attacks. These agencies also unanimously confirmed that Iran never used chemical weapons during the war. An estimated 95,000 Iranian child soldiers were killed during the Iran–Iraq War.

Afghanistan:

Mohammed Zahir Shah, Nadir Shah's 19-year-old son, succeeded to the throne and reigned from 1933 to 1973. Until 1946 Zahir Shah ruled with the assistance of his uncle, who held the post of Prime Minister and continued the policies of Nadir Shah. Another of Zahir Shah's uncles, Shah Mahmud Khan, became Prime Minister in 1946 and began an experiment allowing greater political freedom, but reversed the policy when it went further than he expected. He was replaced in 1953 by Mohammed Daoud Khan, the king's cousin and brother-in-law. Daoud Khan sought a closer relationship with the Soviet Union and a more distant one towards Pakistan. Afghanistan remained neutral and was neither a participant in World War II, nor aligned with either power bloc in the Cold War. However, it was a beneficiary of the latter rivalry as both the Soviet Union and the United States vied for influence by building Afghanistan's main highways, airports and other vital infrastructure. In 1973, while King Zahir Shah was on an official overseas visit, Daoud Khan launched a bloodless coup and became the first President of Afghanistan.

Marxist revolution and Soviet war

In April 1978, the communist People's Democratic Party of Afghanistan (PDPA) seized power in Afghanistan in the Saur Revolution. Within months, opponents of the communist government launched an uprising in eastern Afghanistan that quickly expanded into a civil war waged by guerrilla mujahideen against government forces countrywide. The Pakistani government provided these rebels with covert training centers, while the Soviet Union sent thousands of military advisers to support the PDPA government. Meanwhile, increasing friction between the competing factions of the PDPA — the dominant Khalq and the more moderate Parcham — resulted in the dismissal of Parchami cabinet members and the arrest of Parchami military officers under the pretext of a Parchami coup. By mid-1979, the United States had started a covert program to assist the mujahideen.

In September 1979, Khalqist President Nur Muhammad Taraki was assassinated in a coup within the PDPA orchestrated by fellow Khalq member Hafizullah Amin, who assumed the presidency. Distrusted by the Soviets, Amin was assassinated by Soviet special forces in December 1979. A Soviet-organized government, led by Parcham's Babrak Karmal but inclusive of both factions, filled the vacuum. Soviet troops were deployed to stabilize Afghanistan under Karmal in more substantial numbers, although the Soviet government did not expect to do most of the fighting in Afghanistan. As a result, however, the Soviets were now directly involved in what had been a domestic war in Afghanistan.

At the time some believed the Soviets were attempting to expand their borders southward in order to gain a foothold in the Middle East. The Soviet Union had long lacked a warm water port, and their movement south seemed to position them for further expansion toward Pakistan in the East, and Iran to the West. American politicians, Republicans and Democrats alike, feared the Soviets were positioning themselves for a takeover of Middle Eastern oil. Others believed that the Soviet Union was afraid Iran's Islamic Revolution and Afghanistan's Islamization would spread to the millions of Muslims in the USSR. The PDPA prohibited usury, made statements on women's rights by declaring equality of the sexes and introducing women to political life.

After the invasion, President Jimmy Carter announced what became known as the Carter Doctrine: that the U.S. would not allow any other outside force to gain control of the Persian Gulf. He terminated the Soviet Wheat Deal in January 1980, which was intended to establish trade with USSR and lessen Cold War tensions. The grain exports had been beneficial to people employed in agriculture, and the Carter embargo marked the beginning of hardship for American farmers. That same year, Carter also made two of the most unpopular decisions of his entire Presidency: prohibiting American athletes from participating in the 1980 Summer Olympics in Moscow, and reinstating registration for the draft for young males. Following the Soviet invasion, the United States supported diplomatic efforts to achieve a Soviet withdrawal. In addition, generous U.S. contributions to the refugee program in Pakistan played a major part in efforts to assist Afghan refugees.

The Reagan administration increased arming and funding of the mujahideen as part of the Reagan Doctrine, thanks in large part to the efforts of Charlie Wilson and CIA officer Gust Avrakotos. Early reports estimated $6–20 billion but more recent reports suggest that up to $40 billion were provided by the U.S. and Saudi Arabia to Pakistan.This was in the forms of cash and weapons, which included over two thousand FIM-92 Stinger surface-to-air missiles.

The 10-year Soviet war resulted in the deaths of over 1 million Afghans, mostly civilians. About 6 million fled to Pakistan and Iran, and from there tens of thousands began emigrating to the European Union, United States, Australia and other parts of the world. Faced with mounting international pressure and great number of casualties, the Soviets withdrew in 1989 but continued to support Afghan President Mohammad Najibullah until 1992.

In the whole, the Islamic ideas became more and more popular in the Middle East. The conservative monarchic regimes were overthrown, the superpowers (the USA and the Soviet Union) invaded these countries.

In the whole, the Islamic countries demonstrated different models of development. Some of them were conservative, monarchist and supported by the United States, another - "socialist" and supported by the Soviet Union. The Islamism became evident from the end of the 70-s.

Questions:

1. Describe the development of the Turkey in this time.

2. What is common and different in the history of the Arabic countries in this time.

3. Compare the development of Iran and Afghanistan in this period.

54. Africa in 1950-1990.

The decolonization of Africa started with Libya in 1951. (Although Liberia, South Africa, Egypt and Ethiopia were already independent.) Many countries followed in the 1950s and 1960s, with a peak in 1960 with independence of a large part of French West Africa (17 countries have got the independence). France preserved guarrisons in former colonies and controlled theit military forces. 1963 the Organisation of African Unity was created. Most of the remaining countries gained independence throughout the 1960s, although some colonizers (Portugal in particular) were reluctant to relinquish sovereignty, resulting in bitter wars of independence which lasted for a decade or more. The last African countries to gain formal independence were Guinea-Bissau (1974), Mozambique (1975) and Angola (1975) from Portugal; Djibouti from France in 1977; Zimbabwe from United Kingdom in 1980; and Namibia from South Africa in 1990. Because many cities were founded, enlarged and renamed by the Europeans, after independence many place names were renamed.

North Africa

Moroccan nationalism developed during the 1930s; the Istiqlal Party was formed, pushing for independence. In 1953 sultan Muhammad V called for independence. On March 2, 1956, Morocco became independent of France. Muhammad V became ruler of independent Morocco.

In 1954, Algeria formed the National Liberation Front (FLN) as it split from France. The French responded brutally but negotiated independence in 1962. In Oct. 1963, Ahmed Ben Bella was elected president, and the country became Socialist. All French citizens left the country, crippling the economy. He began to nationalize foreign holdings and aroused opposition. He was overthrown in a military coup on June 19, 1965, by Col. Houari Boumédienne, who suspended the constitution and sought to restore economic stability. After his death, Boumédienne was succeeded by Col. Chadli Bendjedid in 1978. Berbers rioted in 1980 when Arabic was made the country's only official language. Algeria entered a major recession after world oil prices plummeted in the 1980s.

In 1934, the "Neo-Destour" (New Constitution) party was founded by Habib Bourguiba pushing for independence in Tunisia. Tunisia became independent in 1955. Its bey was disposed and Habib Bourguiba elected.

Libya:

On 24 December 1951, Libya declared its independence as the United Kingdom of Libya, a constitutional and hereditary monarchy under King Idris, Libya's only monarch. The discovery of significant oil reserves in 1959 and the subsequent income from petroleum sales enabled one of the world's poorest nations to establish an extremely wealthy state. Although oil drastically improved the Libyan government's finances, resentment among some factions began to build over the increased concentration of the nation's wealth in the hands of King Idris.

On 1 September 1969, a small group of military officers led by 27-year-old army officer Muammar Gaddafi staged a coup d'état against King Idris, launching the Libyan Revolution.Gaddafi was referred to as the "Brother Leader and Guide of the Revolution" in government statements and the official Libyan press.

In 1977, Libya officially became the "Great Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya". Gaddafi officially passed power to the General People's Committees and henceforth claimed to be no more than a symbolic figurehead, but domestic and international critics claimed the reforms gave him virtually unlimited power. Dissidents against the new system were not tolerated, with punitive actions including capital punishment authorized by Gaddafi himself.The new "jamahiriya" governance structure he established was officially referred to as a form of direct democracy, though the government refused to publish election results.

In February 1977, Libya started delivering military supplies to Goukouni Oueddei and the People's Armed Forces in Chad. The Chadian–Libyan conflict began in earnest when Libya's support of rebel forces in northern Chad escalated into an invasion. Later that same year, Libya and Egypt fought a four-day border war that came to be known as the Libyan-Egyptian War, both nations agreed to a ceasefire under the mediation of the Algerian president Houari Boumediène. Hundreds of Libyans lost their lives in the war against Tanzania, when Gaddafi tried to save his friend Idi Amin. Gaddafi financed various other groups from anti-nuclear movements to Australian trade unions.

From 1977 onward, per capita income in the country rose to more than US $11,000, the fifth-highest in Africa, while the Human Development Index became the highest in Africa and greater than that of Saudi Arabia. This was achieved without borrowing any foreign loans, keeping Libya debt-free. The Great Manmade River was also built to allow free access to fresh water across large parts of the country.In addition, financial support was provided for university scholarships and employment programs.

Much of the country’s income from oil, which soared in the 1970s, was spent on arms purchases and on sponsoring dozens of paramilitaries and terrorist groups around the world. An airstrike failed to kill Gaddafi in 1986. Libya was finally put under United Nations sanctions after the bombing of a commercial flight killed hundreds of travellers.

Egypt: In 1951 the mass movement to abolish the treaty of 1936, according to which it kept the military forces in the zone of the Suez channel, used air bases and havens of Egypt, and British officers were part of the commando staff of Egyptian army, began. 1954 the power in Cairo was seized by a group of young officers, headed by Gamal Abdel Nasser (1919-1970).

In 1954, Gamal Abdel Nasser deposed the monarchy of Egypt and came to power. Kong Farouk, supported by the British, abdicated. Egypt was proclaimed to a republic. Egypt was involved in several wars against Israel and was allied with other Arab countries. The first was right after the state of Israel was founded, in 1948. In response to the nationalisation of the Suez channel company, despite the obligation of Egypt to secure the freedom of ship movement and to pay a compensation, 1956 the UK, France and Israel began the war against Africa. The threat of the USSR to use the nuclear weapon caused the retreat of agressors. Egypt was established on the way of reforms. 1958 Syria was united with Egypt in one federative state - United Arabic Republic (UAR), Nasser became its president. The main offices in the UAR were in the hands of Egyptians, therefore the union was disintegrated 1961. In Egypt, like in Syria and raq, the BAAS party was formed. Egypt went to war again in 1967 and lost the Sinai Peninsula to Israel. The successor of Nasser was Anwar Sadat (1970-79). Egypt and Israel went to war yet again in 1973. In 1979, Anwar Sadat and Menachem Begin signed the Camp David Accords, which gave back the Sinai Peninsula to Egypt in exchange for the recognition of Israel. The accords are still in effect today. In 1981, Sadat was assassinated by an Islamist for signing the accords. Hosni Mubarak became his successor. 1988 Israel pull out its forces from the Sinai peninsula.

The revolution in Egypt influenced the neighboring Sudan. Sudan, which was under the British-Egyptian government since 1899, has got an independence. 1955 its territory was left by the foreign troops. In Sudan and Chad the opposition, including a military one, between North and South was a permanent and a decisive factor of their policy.

Ethiopia:

Post–World War II period (1941-1974)

After World War II, Emperor Haile Selassie exerted numerous efforts to promote the modernization of his nation. The country's first important school of higher education, University College of Addis Ababa, was founded in 1950. The Constitution of 1931 was replaced with the 1955 constitution which expanded the powers of the Parliament. While improving diplomatic ties with the United States, Haile Selassie also sought to improve the nation's relationship with other African nations. To do this, in 1963, he helped to found the Organisation of African Unity.

In 1961 the 30-year Eritrean Struggle for Independence began, following the Ethiopian Emperor Haile Selassie I's dissolution of the federation and shutting down the Eritrean parliament. The Emperor declared Eritrea the fourteenth province of Ethiopia in 1962. The Negus suffered criticism due to the expenses involved in fighting the Nationalist forces.

By the early 1970s Emperor Haile Selassie's advanced age was becoming apparent. The nature of the succession, and of the desirability of the Imperial monarchy in general, were in dispute amongst the Ethiopian people.

Perceptions of this war as imperialist were among the primary causes of the growing Ethiopian Marxist movement. In the early 1970s, the Ethiopian Communists received the support of the Soviet Union under the leadership of Leonid Brezhnev. This help lead to the 1974 marxist coup of Mengistu.

The government's failure to effect significant economic and political reforms over the previous fourteen years created a climate of unrest. Combined with rising inflation, corruption, a famine that affected several provinces (especially Welo and Tigray) but was concealed from the outside world, and the growing discontent of urban interest groups, the country was ripe for revolution. The unrest that began in January 1974 became an outburst of general discontent. The Ethiopian military, with assistance from the Comintern, began to both organize and incite a full-fledged revolution.

Communist period (1974-1991)

After a period of civil unrest which began in February 1974, the aging Emperor Haile Selassie I was removed from his position. On September 12, 1974, a provisional administrative council of soldiers, known as the Derg ("committee") seized power from the emperor and installed a government which was socialist in name and military in style. The Derg summarily executed 59 members of the former government, including two former Prime Ministers and Crown Councilors, Court officials, ministers, and generals. Emperor Haile Selassie died on August 22, 1975. He was allegedly strangled in the basement of his palace or smothered with a wet pillow.

Lt. Col. Mengistu Haile Mariam assumed power as head of state and Derg chairman, after having his two predecessors killed, as well as tens of thousands of other suspected opponents. The new Marxist government undertook socialist reforms, including nationalisation of landlords' property and the church's property. Before the coup, Ethiopian peasants' way of life was thoroughly influenced by the church teachings; 280 days a year are religious feasts or days of rest. Mengistu's years in office were marked by a totalitarian-style government and the country's massive militarization, financed by the Soviet Union and the Eastern Bloc, and assisted by Cuba. In December 1976, an Ethiopian delegation in Moscow signed a military assistance agreement with the Soviet Union. The following April 1977, Ethiopia abrogated its military assistance agreement with the United States and expelled the American military missions.

The new regime in Ethiopia met with armed resistance from the large landowners, the royalists and the nobility. The center of resistance was largely centered in the province of Eritrea. The Derg decided in November 1974 to prosecute war in Eritrea rather than seek a negotiated settlement. By mid-1976, the resistance had gained control of most of the town and the countryside of Eritrea.

In July 1977, sensing the disarray in Ethiopia, Somalia attacked across the Ogaden in pursuit of its irredentist claims to the ethnic Somali areas of Ethiopia (see Ogaden War). They were assisted in this invasion by the armed Western Somali Liberation Front. Ethiopian forces were driven back far inside their own frontiers but, with the assistance of a massive Soviet airlift of arms and 17,000 Cuban combat forces, they stemmed the attack. The last major Somali regular units left the Ogaden March 15, 1978. Twenty years later, the Somali region of Ethiopia remains under-developed and insecure.

From 1977 through early 1978, thousands of suspected enemies of the Derg were tortured and/or killed in a purge called the "Red Terror". Communism was officially adopted during the late 1970s and early 1980s; in 1984, the Workers' Party of Ethiopia (WPE) was established, and on February 1, 1987, a new Soviet-style civilian constitution was submitted to a popular referendum. It was officially endorsed by 81% of voters, and in accordance with this new constitution, the country was renamed the People's Democratic Republic of Ethiopia on September 10, 1987, and Mengistu became president.

The regime's collapse was hastened by droughts and famine, which affected around 8 million people, leaving 1 million dead, as well as by insurrections, particularly in the northern regions of Tigray and Eritrea. The regime also conducted a brutal campaign of resettlement and villagization in Ethiopia in the 1980s. In 1989, the Tigrayan Peoples' Liberation Front (TPLF) merged with other ethnically based opposition movements to form the Ethiopian Peoples' Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF). In May 1991, EPRDF forces advanced on Addis Ababa. Mengistu fled the country to asylum in Zimbabwe, where he still resides.

Hundreds of thousands were killed due to the Red Terror, forced deportations, or from using hunger as a weapon. In 2006, after a long trial, Mengistu was found guilty of genocide.

In the whole, the main feature of the development of North African countries was a stubborn fight for the national liberation. The army, led by the patriotic officers, played the special part in this fight. Having taken the power, the military in the rule made course for the accelerated modernisation of economy, the first step for which became a modernisation of the property of foreign companies. The agrarian reform was made, which aim was to secure the mass support of the peasants to modernisation, to increase the agricultural production. The limitation of maximal size of land ownership, giving of land to the leasers, promotion of cooperatives diminished the influence of big land owners, created the conditions of the implementation of progressive technologies of land use. The gradual development of civil forms of social life began.

In the foreign policy the patriotic orientated regimes as a rule sought allies, who were not connected with the former colonial metropolies. The most of them concluded the treaties about the friendship with the USSR, which gave them a technical help and assitance in the development of energetics, heavy industry, military might. One of the first examples of such cooperation was a building the Asuan dam in Egypt in the 1950-s, which allowed to meliorate the land use in the Nile valley and became the biggest energetic center.

West Africa

Following World War II, nationalist movements arose across West Africa, most notably in Ghana under Kwame Nkrumah. In 1957, Ghana became the first sub-Saharan colony to achieve its independence, followed the next year by France's colonies; by 1974, West Africa's nations were entirely autonomous. Since independence, many West African nations have been plagued by corruption and instability, with notable civil wars in Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Liberia, and Côte d'Ivoire, and a succession of military coups in Ghana and Burkina Faso. Many states have failed to develop their economies despite enviable natural resources, and political instability is often accompanied by undemocratic government. In 1960-s in Zaire (former Belgian Kongo) in the province of Katanga, rich by the useful ores, the separatist movement began, which caused the civil war and entrance of the UNO forces in this country. In Nigeria the people of Igbo, populated the rich with oil province Biafra, proclaimed the independence. It caused the three-years civil war.

East Africa

Somali refused from the help of the USSR, then tried to get help from China and the Western countries and was in fact disintegrated.

The Mau Mau Rebellion took place in Kenya from 1952 until 1956 but was put down by British and local forces. A State of Emergency remained in place until 1960. Kenya became independent in 1963, and Jomo Kenyatta served as its first president.

Southern Africa.

In Angola after the independence three main military-politic groups (MPLA, UNITA, FNLA), supported by the different tribal unions, began the struggle with each other to control the capital of the country. One side was supported by the USSR and Cuba, another - by the USA and SAR, the third one - by the neighboring Zaire.

South Africa:

In 1948, the National Party was elected to power. It strengthened the racial segregation begun under Dutch and British colonial rule. The Nationalist Government classified all peoples into three races and developed rights and limitations for each. The white minority controlled the vastly larger black majority. The legally institutionalised segregation became known as apartheid. While the White minority enjoyed the highest standard of living in all of Africa, comparable to First World Western nations, the Black majority remained disadvantaged by almost every standard, including income, education, housing, and life expectancy.

Republic

On 31 May 1961, following a whites-only referendum, the country became a republic and left the Commonwealth. Queen Elizabeth II ceased to be head of state, and the last Governor-General, namely Charles Robberts Swart, became State President (1961-67). This position was a ceremonian one till 1984. Then P.W.Potha became a President (1984-1989). His successor was F.W. de Klerk (1989-1994).

Despite opposition both within and outside the country, the government legislated for a continuation of apartheid. The government harshly oppressed resistance movements, and violence became widespread, with anti-apartheid activists using strikes, marches, protests, and sabotage by bombing and other means. The African National Congress (ANC) was a major resistance movement. Apartheid became increasingly controversial, and some Western nations and institutions began to boycott doing business with South Africa because of its racial policies and oppression of civil rights. International sanctions, divestment of holdings by investors accompanied growing unrest and oppression within South Africa.

In the late 1970s, South Africa began a programme of nuclear weapons development. In the following decade, it produced six deliverable nuclear weapons.

The Mahlabatini Declaration of Faith, signed by Mangosuthu Buthelezi and Harry Schwarz in 1974, enshrined the principles of peaceful transition of power and equality for all, the first of such agreements by acknowledged black and white political leaders in South Africa.

The analogic regime was introduced in the British colony South Rhodesia (independent from 1965) under Prime Minister Ian Smith, although the part of the white people was there lower than in the South Africa (about 1/10 of population).

The economic sanctions of the UNO against the SAR and Rhodesia had a limited effect. SAR had the most developed industry in Africa, it was in the union with the Portugal.

The refuse of white leaders of SAR from the concessions caused that the whole south of Africa - Angola, Mozambique, SAR, Rhodesia, South-West Africa (Namibia), which became a colony of the SAR, became an area of the revolt movement. It was helped by the all independent African countries and many Asian countries, as well as by the USSR and its allies. With the end of the Portuguese colonial empire Angola and Mozambique were often called front states, because in their territory there were bases of insurgents from the SAR, Namibia and Rhodesia. Many times the SAR troops violated their frontiers.

1980 the regime of white minority in South Rhodesia ended. The country was renamed to Zimbabwe. President of Zimbabwe is the head of state of Zimbabwe. The office was first held by Canaan Banana following independence in 1980. From 31 December 1987 to 11 February 2009 the President was also the head of government, as the position of Prime Minister was abolished by Banana's successor, Robert Mugabe. The President of Zimbabwe is elected to a term of 6 years.

The reforms in the SAR began too: the trade unions of the non-white people were allowed, the parliament with separate chambers for white and non-white was established. 1989 the independence was given to the South-West Africa (Namibia).

In the whole, the countries of Africa were liberated from the colonial dependence in this time. This brought other problems, much more complicated and hardly to be solved. So from the colonial times most countries have got the frontiers, which did not correspond to the ethnic ones. The whole continent could be made a war theater.The Organisation of African Unity accepted the decision not to change the frontiers. Despite it, many African countries became an area of the separatist movements, interethnic conflicts, often supported from abroad. The permanent frontier of opposition was made between two cultures - Islamic North African and Christian equatorial-tropical Africa.

The problems of modernisation became extremely acute in the African countries. Many of them had significant resources of the ores, but with some exceptions the badly developed industry and the low productive agriculture was charasteristic for them. After the European specialists had leaved the liberated countries, the branches, which worked for the former monopolies, declined too. The inside resources for the modernisation were absent. The foreign investors had no interest for the investitions into the African economy because of the political instability.

Success with the fight with epidemies and low level of the child mortality caused the big growth of the African population, which was significantly higher than the increase of the alimentary production. From the 22 countries of the world, where the BNP for a person is fewer than 300 doll. (this level is a brink of the physical survival), 16 are in Africa. The situation, when the population of many African countries exists hungrily, increases the political instability, the acuteness of ethnic conflicts. No one of the modernisation models, recommended to the African countries by the developed states, did not make the situation better. Therefore some African leaders were under the influence of the Marxist ideas. Angola, Mozambique, Kongo, Somali, Zimbabwe, Ethiopia, Somali and some other countries declared the intention to go upon the way of socialism. but after the disintegration of the Soviet Union it was changed. The big influence of the traditions of clan and tribal unity excludes the democratic development of the European type. The political parties are in the rule supported by the tribal units. Therefore the political struggle becomes the ethnic conflict, resolved with the force. Attempts to form the mechanisms of coordination were also unsuccessful. In many African countries the social layer, which could be the main moving force of modernisation, is absent.

Questions:

1. Describe the history of the North Africa in this period.

2. What were the main features of the apartheid regimes in South Africa?

3. What was the development of young countries of the Central and South Africa after the liberation?

55. India and neighbor countries in 1950-1990.

a) Countries of Hindustan.

Along with the desire for independence, tensions between Hindus and Muslims had also been developing over the years. The Muslims had always been a minority within the subcontinent, and the prospect of an exclusively Hindu government made them wary of independence; they were as inclined to mistrust Hindu rule as they were to resist the foreign Raj, although Gandhi called for unity between the two groups in an astonishing display of leadership. The British, extremely weakened by the Second World War, promised that they would leave and participated in the formation of an interim government. The British Indian territories gained independence in 1947, after being partitioned into the Union of India and Dominion of Pakistan. Following the controversial division of pre-partition Punjab and Bengal, rioting broke out between Sikhs, Hindus and Muslims in these provinces and spread to several other parts of India, leaving some 500,000 dead. Also, this period saw one of the largest mass migrations ever recorded in modern history, with a total of 12 million Hindus, Sikhs and Muslims moving between the newly created nations of India and Pakistan (which gained independence on 15 and 14 August 1947 respectively). In 1971, Bangladesh, formerly East Pakistan and East Bengal, seceded from Pakistan.

Pakistan:

Eventually, a united Pakistan with its wings – West Pakistan and East Pakistan – gained independence from the British, on 14 August 1947. After a civil war, the Bengal region of East Pakistan, separated at a considerable distance from the rest of Pakistan, became the independent state of Bangladesh in 1971.

Pakistan declared itself an Islamic republic on adoption of a constitution in 1956, but the civilian rule was stalled by the 1958 military coup d'etat by Ayub Khan, who ruled during a period of internal instability and a second war with India in 1965. Economic grievances and political disenfranchisement in East Pakistan led to violent political tensions and army repression, escalating into civil war followed by the third war with India. Pakistan's defeat in the war ultimately led to the secession of East Pakistan and the birth of Bangladesh.

Civilian rule resumed from 1972 to 1977 under Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, until he was deposed by General Zia-ul-Haq, who became the country's third military president. Pakistan's Obsolete-secular policies were replaced by the new Islamic Shariah legal code, which increased religious influences on the civil service and the military. With the death of Zia-ul-Haq in 1988, Benazir Bhutto, daughter of Zulfikar Ali Bhutto, was elected as the first female Prime Minister of Pakistan.

Republic of India:

The history of the Republic of India began on 26 January 1950. The country became an independent dominion within the British Commonwealth 15 August 1947. Concurrently the Muslim-majority northwest and east of British India was separated into the Dominion of Pakistan, by the partition of India. The partition led to a population transfer of more than 10 million people between India and Pakistan and the death of about one million people. Nationalist leader Jawaharlal Nehru became the first Prime Minister of India and Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel became the Deputy Prime Minister of India and its Minister of Home Affairs. But the most powerful moral leader Mahatma Mohandas Gandhi accepted no office and was murdered 1948. The new constitution of 1950 made India a secular and a democratic state. It has a Hindu majority, a large Muslim minority, and numerous other religious minorities including Sikhs and Christians.

The nation faced religious violence, casteism, naxalism, terrorism and regional separatist insurgencies, especially in Jammu and Kashmir and northeastern India. India has unresolved territorial disputes with China, which, in 1962, escalated into the Sino-Indian War, and with Pakistan, which resulted in wars in 1947, 1965, 1971 and 1999. India was neutral in the Cold War, but purchased its military weapons from the Soviet Union, while its arch-foe Pakistan was closely tied to the United States.

India is a nuclear-weapon state; having conducted its first nuclear test in 1974, followed by another five tests in 1998. From the 1950s to the 1980s, India followed socialist-inspired policies. The economy was shackled by extensive regulation, protectionism and public ownership, leading to pervasive corruption and slow economic growth.

The Prime Minister of India is the political leader of the country and the principal head of government of the Republic of India. As addressed to in the Constitution of India, the prime minister is the chief of government, chief advisor to the president, head of the Council of Ministers and the leader of the majority party in parliament. The office holder is responsible for nominating all other members of the government, chairing cabinet meetings. The office of Prime Minister was created immediately after the establishment of India, according to the Indian Independence Act, in 1947. There have been 13 and one acting prime ministers since 1947. From Indian National Congress; six, Janata Dal; three and one from Janata Party, Janata Party (Secular), Samajwadi Janata Party, Bharatiya Janata Party leaders have served at the post.

Jawaharlal Nehru was appointed as the first Prime Minister of independent India by the Governor General in 1947. He served at the post till 27 May 1964 when he died in office, making him the longest serving Prime Minister of the country. Gulzarilal Nanda succeed him as the acting Prime Minister and served until elections. Lal Bahadur Shastri was selected as the second Prime Minister of the country on 9 June 1964 and the place was taken by Nanda as an acting Prime Minister again, when he died. Indira Gandhi assumed the office as the third Prime Minister on 24 January 1966 and served till 24 March 1977, making her the first female Prime Minister of India. Morarji Desai, the first Janata Party leader and Charan Singh the first Janata Party (Secular) leader served at the post chronologically until Gandhi was reelected for the post on 14 January 1980. She served at the position till 31 October 1984 when she was assassinated, making her the country's second longest serving and the world's second longest serving female Prime Minister.

Rajiv Gandhi, son of the late Indira, succeeded his mother as the sixth prime minister on 31 October 1984. V. P. Singh, the first Janata Dal leader and Chandra Shekhar, the first Samajwadi Janata Party then occupied the post until the election of P. V. Narasimha Rao of the Indian National Congress in 1991.

Presidents of India: Dr.Rajendra Prasad (1950-62); Sarvepalli Radhakrishnan (1962-67), a famous scholar an author of “History of Indian Philosophy”; Zakir Hussain (1967-69); Varahagiri Venkata Giri (1969); Muhammad Hidayatullah (1969); Varahagiri Venkata Giri (1969-74); Fakhruddin Ali Ahmed (1974 -77); Basappa Danappa Jatti 1977; Neelam Sanjiva Reddy 1977-82; Giani Zail Singh (1982-87); Ramaswamy Venkataraman (1987-92).

Bangladesh:

With the exit of the British Empire in 1947, Bengal was partitioned along religious lines, with the western part going to newly created India and the eastern part (Muslim majority) joining Pakistan as a province called East Bengal (later renamed East Pakistan), with its capital at Dhaka. In 1950, land reform was accomplished in East Bengal with the abolishment of the feudal zamindari system.Despite the economic and demographic weight of the east, however, Pakistan's government and military were largely dominated by the upper classes from the west. The Bengali Language Movement of 1952 was the first sign of friction between the two wings of Pakistan.Dissatisfaction with the central government over economic and cultural issues continued to rise through the next decade, during which the Awami League emerged as the political voice of the Bengali-speaking population. It agitated for autonomy in the 1960s, and in 1966, its president, Sheikh Mujibur Rahman (Mujib), was jailed; he was released in 1969 after an unprecedented popular uprising. In 1970, a massive cyclone devastated the coast of East Pakistan, killing up to half a million people, and the central government responded poorly. The Bengali population's anger was compounded when Sheikh Mujibur Rahman, whose Awami League won a majority in Parliament in the 1970 elections, was blocked from taking office.

After staging compromise talks with Mujib, President Yahya Khan and military officials launched Operation Searchlight, a sustained military assault on East Pakistan and arrested him in the early hours of 26 March 1971. Yahya's methods were extremely bloody, and the violence of the war resulted in many civilian deaths. Chief targets included intellectuals and Hindus, and about one million refugees fled to neighbouring India. Estimates of those massacred throughout the war range from thirty thousand to 3,000,000. Mujibur Rahman was ultimately released on 8 January 1972, due to direct US intervention.

Awami League leaders set up a government-in-exile in Calcutta, India. The exile government formally took oath at Meherpur, in Kustia district of East Pakistan on 17 April 1971, with Tajuddin Ahmad as the first Prime Minister and Syed Nazrul Islam as the Acting President. The Bangladesh Liberation War lasted for nine months. The Bangladesh Forces formed within 11 sectors led by General M.A.G. Osmani consisting of Bengali Regular forces conducted a massive guerilla war against the Pakistan Forces with support from the Mukti Bahinis consisting of Kaderia Bahni, Hemayet Bahini, and others financed and equipped by Indian Armed Forces Maj. Gen. Sujat Singh Uban. The Indian Army, assisted by Bangladeshi forces, negotiated a cease-fire and surrounded the Dhaka Area. The Indian Army remained in Bangladesh until 19 March 1972.

After its independence, Bangladesh was governed by an Awami League government, with Mujib as the Prime Minister, without holding any elections. In the 1973 parliamentary elections, the Awami League gained an absolute majority. A nationwide famine occurred during 1973 and 1974, and in early 1975, Mujib initiated a one-party socialist rule with his newly formed BAKSAL. On 15 August 1975, Mujib and most of his family members were assassinated by mid-level military officers. Vice President Khandaker Mushtaq Ahmed was sworn in as President with most of Mujib's cabinet intact. Two Army uprisings on 3 November and the other on 7 November 1975 led to the reorganised structure of power. Emergency was declared to restore order and calm, Mushtaq resigned and the country was placed under temporary martial law, with three service chiefs serving as deputies to the new president Justice Abu Sayem, who also became the Chief Martial Law Administrator. Lieutenant General Ziaur Rahman, took over the presidency in 1977 as Justice Sayem resigned. President Ziaur Rahman reinstated multi-party politics, introduced free markets, and founded the Bangladesh Nationalist Party (BNP). Zia's rule ended when he was assassinated by elements of the military in 1981.

Bangladesh's next major ruler was Lieutenant General Hussain Mohammad Ershad, who gained power in a coup on 24 March 1982, and ruled until 6 December 1990, when he was forced to resign after a revolt of all major political parties and the public, along with pressure from Western donors (which was a major shift in international policy after the fall of the Soviet Union).

Nepal:

In the late 1940s, newly emerging pro-democracy movements and political parties in Nepal were critical of the Rana autocracy. Meanwhile, with the invasion of Tibet by China in the 1950s, India sought to counterbalance the perceived military threat from its northern neighbour by taking pre-emptive steps to assert more influence in Nepal. India sponsored both King Tribhuvan (ruled 1911–55) as Nepal's new ruler in 1951 and a new government, mostly comprising the Nepali Congress Party, thus terminating Rana hegemony in the kingdom.

After years of power wrangling between the king and the government, King Mahendra (ruled 1955–72) scrapped the democratic experiment in 1959, and a "partyless" Panchayat system was made to govern Nepal until 1989, when the "Jan Andolan" (People's Movement) forced King Birendra (ruled 1972–2001) to accept constitutional reforms and to establish a multiparty parliament that took seat in May 1991.

Bhutan:

After the new Union of India gained independence from the United Kingdom on 15 August 1947, Bhutan became one of the first countries to recognize India's independence. On 8 August 1949, a treaty similar to that of 1910, in which Britain had gained power over Bhutan's foreign relations, was signed with the newly independent India.

In 1953, King Jigme Dorji Wangchuck established the country's legislature – a 130-member National Assembly – to promote a more democratic form of governance. In 1965, he set up a Royal Advisory Council, and in 1968 he formed a Cabinet. In 1971, Bhutan was admitted to the United Nations, having held observer status for three years. In July 1972, Jigme Singye Wangchuck ascended to the throne at the age of sixteen after the death of his father, Dorji Wangchuck.

Political reform and modernization

King Jigme Singye Wangchuck introduced significant political reforms, transferring most of his administrative powers to the Council of Cabinet Ministers and allowing for impeachment of the King by a two-thirds majority of the National Assembly.

Burma:

Independence

On 4 January 1948, the nation became an independent republic, named the Union of Burma, with Sao Shwe Thaik as its first President and U Nu as its first Prime Minister. Unlike most other former British colonies and overseas territories, it did not become a member of the Commonwealth. A bicameral parliament was formed, consisting of a Chamber of Deputies and a Chamber of Nationalities, and multi-party elections were held in 1951–1952, 1956 and 1960.

The geographical area Burma encompasses today can be traced to the Panglong Agreement, which combined Burma Proper, which consisted of Lower Burma and Upper Burma, and the Frontier Areas, which had been administered separately by the British.

In 1961, U Thant, then the Union of Burma's Permanent Representative to the United Nations and former Secretary to the Prime Minister, was elected Secretary-General of the United Nations, a position he held for ten years. Among the Burmese to work at the UN when he was Secretary-General was a young Aung San Suu Kyi, who went on to become winner of the 1991 Nobel Peace Prize.

Military rule

On 2 March 1962, the military led by General Ne Win took control of Burma through a coup d'état and the government has been under direct or indirect control by the military since then. Between 1962 and 1974, Burma was ruled by a revolutionary council headed by the general, and almost all aspects of society (business, media, production) were nationalized or brought under government control under the Burmese Way to Socialism which combined Soviet-style nationalisation and central planning with the governmental implementation of superstitious beliefs. A new constitution of the Socialist Republic of the Union of Burma was adopted in 1974. Until 1988, the country was ruled as a one-party system, with the General and other military officers resigning and ruling through the Burma Socialist Programme Party (BSPP). During this period, Burma became one of the world's most impoverished countries.

There were sporadic protests against military rule during the Ne Win years and these were almost always violently suppressed. On 7 July 1962, the government broke up demonstrations at Rangoon University, killing 15 students. In 1974, the military violently suppressed anti-government protests at the funeral of U Thant. Student protests in 1975, 1976 and 1977 were quickly suppressed by overwhelming force.

In 1988, unrest over economic mismanagement and political oppression by the government led to widespread pro-democracy demonstrations throughout the country known as the 8888 Uprising. Security forces killed thousands of demonstrators, and General Saw Maung staged a coup d'état and formed the State Law and Order Restoration Council (SLORC). In 1989, SLORC declared martial law after widespread protests. The military government finalised plans for People's Assembly elections on 31 May 1989. SLORC changed the country's official English name from the "Socialist Republic of the Union of Burma" to the "Union of Myanmar" in 1989.

Sri Lanka:

Independence

The Soulbury constitution ushered in Dominion status, with independence proclaimed on 4 February 1948. D. S. Senanayake became the first Prime Minister of Ceylon. Prominent Tamil leaders like Ponnambalam and Arunachalam Mahadeva joined his cabinet. The British Royal Navy remained stationed at Trincomalee until 1956. A countrywide popular demonstration against withdrawal of the rice ration, known as Hartal 1953, resulted in the resignation of prime minister Dudley Senanayake. S. W. R. D. Bandaranaike was elected prime minister in 1956. His three-year rule had a profound impact, through his self-proclaimed role of "defender of the besieged Sinhalese culture". He introduced the controversial Sinhala Only Act, recognising Sinhala as the only official language of the government. Although partially reversed in 1958, the bill posed a grave concern for the Tamil community, which perceived in it a threat to their language and culture. The Federal Party (FP) launched a movement of non-violent resistance (satyagraha) against the bill, which prompted Bandaranaike to reach an agreement (Bandaranaike-Chelvanayakam Pact) with S. J. V. Chelvanayakam, leader of the FP, to resolve the looming ethnic conflict. However the pact proved ineffective in the face of ongoing protests by opposition and the Buddhist clergy. The bill, together with various government colonisation schemes, contributed much towards the political rancour between Sinhalese and Tamil political leaders. Bandaranaike was assassinated by an extremist Buddhist monk in 1959.

Sirimavo Bandaranaike, the widow of late S. W. R. D. Bandaranaike, took office as prime minister in 1960, and withstood an attempted coup d'état in 1962. During her second term as prime minister, the government instituted socialist economic polices, strengthening ties with the Soviet Union and China, while promoting a policy of non-alignment. In 1971, Ceylon experienced a Marxist insurrection, which was quickly suppressed. In 1972, the country became a republic named Sri Lanka, repudiating its dominion status. Prolonged minority grievances and the use of communal emotionalism as an election campaign weapon by both Sinhalese and Tamil leaders abetted a fledgling Tamil militancy in the north, during the 1970s. The policy of standardisation by the Sirimavo government to rectify disparities created in university enrolment, which was in essence an affirmative action to assist geographically disadvantaged students to obtain tertiary education, resulted in reducing the proportion of Tamil students at university level and acted as the immediate catalyst for the rise of militancy. The assassination of Jaffna Mayor Alfred Duraiyappah in 1975 marked a crisis point.

The Government of J. R. Jayawardene swept to power in 1977, defeating the largely unpopular United Front government. Jayawardene introduced a new constitution, together with a free market economy and a powerful executive presidency modelled after that of France. It made Sri Lanka the first South Asian country to liberalise its economy. From 1983, ethnic tensions were manifested in on-and-off insurgency against the government by the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE). Following the riots in July 1983, more than 150,000 Tamil civilians fled the island, seeking asylum in other countries. Lapses in foreign policy resulted in neighbouring India strengthening the Tigers by providing arms and training. In 1987, the Indo-Sri Lanka Accord was signed and Indian Peace Keeping Force (IPKF) was deployed in northern Sri Lanka to stabilise the region by neutralising the LTTE. The same year, the JVP launched its second insurrection in Southern Sri Lanka, necessitating redeployment of the IPKF in 1990.

In the whole, after the liberation from the British colonial domination the countries of Hindustan went the way of democracy, some of them preferred the left experiments. The frontiers, made by colonisators, caused different conflicts (between India and Pakistan, India and China etc.). The Muslim-Hindu conflict and the overpopulation were problems too.

b) Countries of Indochina and Indonesia.

Thailand:

The young King Ananda Mahidol (Rama VIII) died in 1946 under somewhat mysterious circumstances, the official explanation being that he shot himself by accident while cleaning his gun. He was succeeded by his brother Bhumibol Adulyadej, the longest reigning king of Thailand, and very popular with the Thais. Although nominally a constitutional monarchy, Thailand was ruled by a series of military governments, most prominently led by Plaek Phibunsongkhram and Sarit Dhanarajata, interspersed with brief periods of democracy.

After Japan's defeat in 1945, due to the help of Seri Thai, American support mitigated Allied terms, although the British demanded reparations in the form of rice sent to Malaya, and the French, return of territories lost in the Franco-Thai War. In exchange for supporting Thailand's admission to the United Nations, the Soviet Union demanded repeal of anticommunist legislation. It should also be noted that some former British POW's erected a monument expressing gratitude to the citizens of Ubon Ratchathani. In the postwar period, Thailand had close relations with the United States, which it saw as a protector from communist revolutions in neighboring countries. See United States Air Force in Thailand.

Communist guerrillas existed in the country from early '60s up to 1987, counting almost 12,000 full-time fighters at the peak of movement, but never posed a serious threat to the state.

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Democracy

Post-1973 has been marked by a struggle to define the political contours of the state. It was won by the King and General Prem Tinsulanonda, who favored a monarchy constitutional order.

The post-1973 years have seen a difficult and sometimes bloody transition from military to civilian rule, with several reversals along the way. The revolution of 1973 inaugurated a brief, unstable period of democracy, with military rule being reimposed after the 6 October 1976 Massacre. For most of the 1980s, Thailand was ruled by Prem Tinsulanonda, a democratically inclined strongman who restored parliamentary politics.

Laos:

During World War II, the Japanese occupied French Indochina. When Japan surrendered, Lao nationalists declared Laos independent, but by early 1946, French troops had reoccupied the country and conferred limited autonomy on Laos. During the First Indochina War, the Indochinese Communist Party formed the Pathet Lao resistance organization committed to Lao independence. Laos gained full independence on 22 October 1953.

The period of the Kingdom of Laos

Elections were held in 1955, and the first coalition government, led by Prince Souvanna Phouma, was formed in 1957. The coalition government collapsed in 1958 under pressure from the United States. In 1960 Captain Kong Le staged a coup when the cabinet was away at the royal capital of Luang Prabang and demanded reformation of a neutralist government. The second coalition government, once again led by Souvanna Phouma, was not successful in holding power. Rightist forces under General Phoumi Nosavan drove out the neutralist government from power later that same year.

A second Geneva conference, held in 1961-62, provided for the independence and neutrality of Laos, but the agreement was subverted by both the United States and North Vietnam and the war soon resumed. The government and army of Laos were generally neutral during the conflict. The United States and North Vietnam subverted the agreement by forming private proxy armies. Growing American and North Vietnamese military presence in the country increasingly drew Laos into the Second Indochina War (1954-1975). For nearly a decade, eastern Laos was subjected to the heaviest bombing in the history of warfare [1], as the U.S. sought to destroy the Ho Chi Minh Trail that passed through Laos. The country was also repeatedly invaded by Vietnam.

Shortly after the Paris Peace Accords led to the withdrawal of U.S. forces from Vietnam, a ceasefire between the Pathet Lao and the government led to a new coalition government. However, North Vietnam never really withdrew from Laos and the Pathet Lao remained little more than a proxy army for Vietnamese interests. After the fall of South Vietnam to communist forces in April 1975, the Pathet Lao with the backing of North Vietnam were able to take total power with little resistance. On December 2, 1975, the king was forced to abdicate his throne and the Lao People's Democratic Republic was established.

The period of the Communist government/contemporary period

The new communist government led by Kaysone Phomvihane imposed centralized economic decision-making and incarcerated many members of the previous government and military in "re-education camps" which also included the Hmongs. While nominally independent, the communist government was for many years effectively little more than a puppet regime run from Vietnam. The government's policies prompted about 10 percent of the Lao population to leave the country. Laos depended heavily on Soviet aid channeled through Vietnam up until the Soviet collapse in 1991.

Cambodia:

In 1949 Cambodia got his own government and in 1953 finally their first independence since 1864. In the `50s and `60s, Cambodia was a prospered country and Phnom Penh was called „Paris in Indochina“.

From 1969, Cambodia suffered more and more be the bombings from U.S Army. They wanted to destroy the Vietnamese hiding in Cambodia along the Vietnamese border. In 1970 General Lon Nol overthrew Prince Sihanouk who was visiting Peking. On 17 April 1975, the Khmer Rouge pushed out Lon Nol and ruled Cambodia. More then one million Khmers died under the reign of Pol Pot. King Sihanouk was brought to a deserted capital and maintained under house arrest.

In 1979, the Vietnamese, backed by the army of the People’s Republic of Kampuchea, pushed the Khmer Rouge back in to the forest and a long guerrilla war began. The Paris Peace Agreement was reached in 1991, which has been created by the United Nations.

Malaysia:

Post-war British plans to unite the administration of Malaya under a single crown colony called the Malayan Union met with strong opposition from the Malays, who opposed the weakening of the Malay rulers and the granting of citizenship to the ethnic Chinese. The Malayan Union, established in 1946 and consisting of all the British possessions in the Malay Peninsula with the exception of Singapore, was quickly dissolved and replaced by the Federation of Malaya, which restored the autonomy of the rulers of the Malay states under British protection. During this time, mostly Chinese rebels under the leadership of the Malayan Communist Party launched guerrilla operations designed to force the British out of Malaya. The Malayan Emergency lasted from 1948 to 1960, and involved a long anti-insurgency campaign by Commonwealth troops in Malaya. After this a plan was put in place to federate Malaya with the British crown colonies of Sabah, Sarawak, and Singapore. The proposed date of federation was 31 August 1963, however, the date was delayed until 16 September 1963 due to opposition from Indonesia's Sukarno and the Sarawak United Peoples' Party.

Federation brought heightened tensions including a conflict with Indonesia, Singapore's eventual exit in 1965, and racial strife. This strife culminated in the 13th May race riots in 1969. After the riots, the controversial New Economic Policy was launched by Prime Minister Tun Abdul Razak, trying to increase the share of the economy held by the bumiputera. Under Prime Minister Mahathir Mohamad there was a period of rapid economic growth and urbanisation beginning in the 1980s. The economy shifted from being agriculturally based to one based on manufacturing and industry. Numerous mega-projects were completed, such as the Petronas Towers, the North-South Expressway, the Multimedia Super Corridor, and the new federal administrative capital of Putrajaya.

Singapore:

Singapore's first general election in 1955 was won by the pro-independence David Marshall, leader of the Labour Front. Demanding complete self-rule he led a delegation to London but was turned down by the British. He resigned when he returned and was replaced by Lim Yew Hock, whose policies convinced Britain to grant Singapore full internal self-government for all matters except defence and foreign affairs.

During the May 1959 elections, the People's Action Party won a landslide victory. Singapore had become an internally self-governing state within the Commonwealth, with Lee Kuan Yew as the first Prime Minister. Governor Sir William Allmond Codrington Goode served as the first Yang di-Pertuan Negara ("Head of State"), and was succeeded by Yusof bin Ishak who in 1965 became the first President of Singapore. During the 1950s Communists, mostly supported by the Chinese-speaking group, with strong ties to the trade unions and Chinese schools, carried out an armed struggle against the state, resulting in the Malayan Emergency and later, the Communist Insurgency War. The 1954 National Service Riots, Chinese middle schools riots and Hock Lee bus riots in Singapore were all linked to the Communists .

On 31 August 1963, Singapore declared independence from Britain and joined with Malaya, Sabah and Sarawak to form the new Federation of Malaysia as the result of the 1962 Merger Referendum. Singaporean leaders joined Malaysia for various reasons. Firstly, as a small country, they did not believe that the British would find it viable for Singapore to become independent by itself. Secondly, they also did not believe that Singapore could survive on its own, due to scarcity of land, water, markets and natural resources. And lastly, the Singapore government wanted the help of the Malaysian government to flush out the Communists. The two years that Singapore spent as part of Malaysia were filled with strife and bitter disagreements. The Malaysians insisted on a pro-Bumiputera (Malay for indigenous) society, where indigenous Malays and tribes were given special Bumiputera rights, which still exist to this day to assist the majority Malay community who were left behind in terms of economic share of the country compared to the minority Chinese and to maintain harmony within a multiethnic society. The Malaysians were also suspicious about Singapore's majority of ethnic Chinese and worried that Singapore's economic clout would shift the centre of power from Kuala Lumpur to Singapore. There were also linguistic and religious issues. The Singaporeans, on the other hand, wanted an equal and meritocratic society, a Malaysian Malaysia where all citizens were given equal rights. As part of Malaysia, Singapore's economic and social development came to a halt as the Malaysian parliament blocked many bills. Race riots broke out in Singapore in 1964. After much heated ideological conflicts between the two governments, in 1965, the Malaysian parliament voted 126 to 0 to expel Singapore from Malaysia. Race riots broke out once more in 1969.

Singapore gained independence as the Republic of Singapore (remaining within the Commonwealth) on 9 August 1965 with Yusof bin Ishak as president and Lee Kuan Yew as Prime Minister. Everyone who was present in Singapore on the date of independence was offered Singapore citizenship. In 1967, it helped found the Association of Southeast Asian Nations and in 1970 it joined the Non-aligned movement.

Brunei:

Brunei regained its independence from the United Kingdom on 1 January 1984.

Indonesia:

Two days after the surrender of Japan in August 1945, Sukarno, an influential nationalist leader, declared independence and was appointed president.The Netherlands tried to reestablish their rule, and the resulting conflict ended in December 1949, when in the face of international pressure, the Dutch formally recognized Indonesian independence (with the exception of the Dutch territory of West New Guinea, which was incorporated into Indonesia following the 1962 New York Agreement, and the UN-mandated Act of Free Choice of 1969).

Sukarno moved Indonesia from democracy towards authoritarianism, and maintained his power base by balancing the opposing forces of the military and the Communist Party of Indonesia (PKI). An attempted coup on 30 September 1965 was countered by the army, who led a violent anti-communist purge, during which the PKI was blamed for the coup and effectively destroyed. Around 500,000 people are estimated to have been killed. The head of the military, General Suharto, outmaneuvered the politically weakened Sukarno, and was formally appointed president in March 1968. His New Order administration was supported by the US government, and encouraged foreign direct investment in Indonesia, which was a major factor in the subsequent three decades of substantial economic growth. However, the authoritarian "New Order" was widely accused of corruption and suppression of political opposition.

Philippine:

On July 4, 1946, the Philippines attained its independence. Immediately after World War II, the Philippines faced a number of challenges. The country had to be rebuilt from the ravages of war. It also had to come to terms with Japanese collaborators. Meanwhile, disgruntled remnants of the Hukbalahap communist rebel army that had previously fought against and resisted the Japanese continued to roam the rural regions. This threat to the government was dealt with by Secretary of National Defense and later President Ramon Magsaysay, but sporadic cases of communist insurgency continued to flare up long afterward. In 1965, Ferdinand Marcos was elected president. Nearing the end of his second term and constitutionally barred from seeking a third, he declared martial law on September 21, 1972. By using political divisions, the tension of the Cold War, and the specter of communist rebellion and Islamic insurgency as justifications, he governed by decree.

On August 21, 1983, Marcos' chief rival opposition leader Benigno "Ninoy" Aquino, Jr. ignored warnings and returned from exile in the United States. He was assassinated as he was taken off the plane at the Manila International Airport (now called the Ninoy Aquino International Airport in his memory). With political pressure building, Marcos eventually called for snap presidential elections in 1986. Corazon Aquino, Benigno's widow, was persuaded to become the presidential candidate and standard bearer of the opposition. The elections were widely considered rigged when Marcos was proclaimed the winner. This led to the People Power Revolution, instigated when two long-time Marcos allies—Armed Forces of the Philippines Vice Chief-of-Staff Fidel V. Ramos and Secretary of National Defense Juan Ponce Enrile—resigned and barricaded themselves in Camp Aguinaldo and Camp Crame. Exhorted by the Cardinal Archbishop of Manila Jaime Sin, people gathered in support of the rebel leaders and protested on Epifanio de los Santos Avenue (EDSA). In the face of mass protests and military defections, Marcos and his allies fled to Hawaii and into exile. Corazon Aquino was recognized as president.

The return of democracy and government reforms after the events of 1986 were hampered by national debt, government corruption, coup attempts, a persistent communist insurgency, and Islamic separatists.

In the whole, the countries of Indochina and Indonesia, both Buddhist and Muslim, went different ways in this time. Some of them tried to build socialism, another remained monarchist or authoritarian.

c) Australia and the Pacific region.

Australia

Menzies and Liberal dominance: 1949–72

Politically, Robert Menzies and the Liberal Party of Australia dominated much of the immediate post war era, defeating the Labor government of Ben Chifley in 1949, in part over a Labor proposal to nationalise banks and following a crippling coal strike led by the Australian Communist Party. Menzies became the country's longest-serving Prime Minister and the Liberal party, in coalition with the rural based Country Party, won every federal election until 1972.

As in the United States in the early 1950s, allegations of communist influence in society saw tensions emerge in politics. Refugees from Soviet dominated Eastern Europe immigrated to Australia, while to Australia's north, Mao Zedong's Communist Party of China won the Chinese civil war in 1949 and in June 1950, Communist North Korea invaded South Korea. The Menzies government responded to a United States led United Nations Security Council request for military aid for South Korea and diverted forces from occupied Japan to begin Australia's involvement in the Korean War. After fighting to a bitter standstill, the UN and North Korean signed a ceasefire agreement in July 1953. Australian forces had participated in such major battles as Kapyong and Maryang San. 17,000 Australians had served and casualties amounted to more than 1,500, of whom 339 were killed.

During the course of the Korean War, the Liberal Government attempted to ban the Communist Party of Australia, first by legislation in 1950 and later by referendum, in 1951. While both attempts were unsuccessful, further international events such as the defection of minor Soviet Embassy official Vladimir Petrov, added to a sense of impending threat that politically favoured Menzies' Liberal-CP government, as the Labor Party split over concerns about the influence of the Communist Party over the trade union movement. The tensions led to another bitter split and the emergence of the breakaway Democratic Labor Party (DLP). The DLP remained an influential political force, often holding the balance of power in the Senate, until 1974. Its preferences supported the Liberal and Country Party. The Labor party was led by H.V. Evatt after Chifley's death in 1951. Evatt had served as President of the United Nations General Assembly during 1948–49 and helped draft the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948). Evatt retired in 1960 amid signs of mental ill-health, and Arthur Calwell succeeded him as leader, with a young Gough Whitlam as his deputy.

Menzies presided over a period of sustained economic boom and the beginnings of sweeping social change – with the arrivals of rock and roll music and television in the 1950s. In 1958, Australian country music singer Slim Dusty, who would become the musical embodiment of rural Australia, had Australia's first international music chart hit with his bush ballad "Pub With No Beer", while rock and roller Johnny O'Keefe's "Wild One" became the first local recording to reach the national charts, peaking at #20. Before sleeping through the 1960s Australian cinema produced little of its own content in the 1950s, but British and Hollywood studios produced a string of successful epics from Australian literature, featuring home grown stars Chips Rafferty and Peter Finch.

Menzies remained a staunch supporter of links to the monarchy and Commonwealth of Nations and formalised an alliance with the United States, but also launched post-war trade with Japan, beginning a growth of Australian exports of coal, iron ore and mineral resources that would steadily climb until Japan became Australia's largest trading partner.

When Menzies retired in 1965, he was replaced as Liberal leader and Prime Minister by Harold Holt. Holt drowned while swimming at a surf beach in December 1967 and was replaced by John Gorton (1968–1971) and then by William McMahon (1971–1972).

The Australian military presence in Vietnam had lasted 10 years, and in purely human cost, over 500 had been killed and more than 2,000 wounded. The war cost Australia $218 million between 1962 and 1972.

Australia administered Papua New Guinea and Nauru for much of the 20th century. Papua and New Guinea adopted self-government in 1972 and on 15 September 1975, the Territory became the independent nation of Papua New Guinea. Australia had captured the island of Nauru from the German Empire in 1914. After Japanese occupation during World War II, it became a UN Trust Territory under Australia and remained so until achieving independence in 1968.

Whitlam and Fraser

Elected in December 1972 after 23 years in opposition, Labor won office under Gough Whitlam, introducing a significant program of social change and reform and dramatically expanding the Federal budget. Within a few weeks the last military advisors in Vietnam were recalled, and national service ended. The People's Republic of China was recognised (Whitlam had visited China while Opposition Leader in 1971) and the embassy in Taiwan closed. Over the next few years, university fees were abolished and a national health care scheme established. Significant changes were made to school funding.

The Whitlam government's agenda endeared it to some Australians, but not all. Some of the state governments were openly hostile to it, and as it did not control the senate, much of its legislation was rejected or amended. The Queensland Country Party government of Joh Bjelke-Petersen had particularly bad relations with the Federal government. Even after it was re-elected at elections in May 1974, the Senate remained an obstacle to its political agenda. At the only joint sitting of parliament, in August 1974, six keys pieces of legislation were passed.

In 1974, Whitlam selected John Kerr, a former member of the Labor Party and presiding Chief Justice of New South Wales to serve as Governor General. The Whitlam Government was re-elected with a decreased majority in the lower house in the 1974 Election. In 1974–75 the government thought about borrowing US$4 billion in foreign loans. Minister Rex Connor conducted secret discussions with a loan broker from Pakistan, and the Treasurer, Jim Cairns, misled parliament over the issue. Arguing the government was incompetent following the Loans Affair, the opposition Liberal-Country Party Coalition delayed passage of the government's money bills in the Senate, until the government would promise a new election. Whitlam refused, Malcolm Fraser, leader of the Opposition insisted. The deadlock ended when the Whitlam government was dismissed by the Governor General, John Kerr on 11 November 1975 and Fraser was installed as caretaker Prime Minister, pending an election. The "reserve powers" granted to the Governor General by the Australian Constitution, had allowed an elected government to be dismissed without warning by a representative of the Monarch.

At elections held in late 1975, Malcolm Fraser and the Coalition were elected in a landslide victory.

The Fraser Government won two subsequent elections. Fraser maintained some of the social reforms of the Whitlam era, while seeking increased fiscal restraint. His government included the first Aboriginal federal parliamentarian, Neville Bonner, and in 1976, Parliament passed the Aboriginal Land Rights Act 1976, which, while limited to the Northern Territory, affirmed "inalienable" freehold title to some traditional lands. Fraser established the multicultural broadcaster SBS, welcomed Vietnamese boat people refugees, opposed minority white rule in Apartheid South Africa and Rhodesia and opposed Soviet expansionism. A significant program of economic reform however was not pursued and, by 1983, the Australian economy was in recession, amidst the effects of a severe drought. Fraser had promoted "states' rights" and his government refused to use Commonwealth powers to stop the construction of the Franklin Dam in Tasmania in 1982. A Liberal minister, Don Chipp had split off from the party to form a new social liberal party, the Australian Democrats in 1977 and the Franklin Dam proposal contributed to the emergence of an influential Environmental movement in Australia, with branches including the Australian Greens, a political party which later emerged out of Tasmania to pursue environmentalism as well as left-wing social and economic policies.

Hawke and Keating: 1983–1996

The new Parliament House in Canberra was opened in 1988.

Bob Hawke, a less polarising Labor leader than Whitlam, defeated Fraser at the 1983 Election. Hawke retained office until a 1991 Labor Party spill saw him replaced by Paul Keating.

The new government stopped the Franklin Dam project via the High Court of Australia. Hawke, together with treasurer Paul Keating broke with the Keynesian economics that had traditionally been favoured by the Labor party. Instead they sought a more efficient economy and undertook micro-economic and industrial relations reform designed to increase efficiency and competitiveness. Kelly concludes that, "In the 1980s both Labor and non-Labor underwent internal philosophical revolutions to support a new set of ideas – faith in markets, deregulation, a reduced role for government, low protection and the creation of a new cooperative enterprise culture."

The Australian Bicentenary was celebrated in 1988 along with the opening of a new Parliament House in Canberra.

Hawke and Keating stressed the positive role Australia could play as an activist and independent "middle power." A supporter of the US alliance, Hawke committed Australian naval forces to the Gulf War, following the 1990 invasion of Kuwait by Iraq. After four successful elections, but amid a deteriorating Australian economy and rising unemployment, the intense rivalry between Hawke and Keating led the Labor Party to replace Hawke as leader and Paul Keating became Prime Minister in 1991.

New Zealand:

Cooperation with the United States set a direction of policy which resulted in the ANZUS Treaty between New Zealand, America and Australia in 1951.

Fedorowich and Bridge argue that the demands of War produced long-term consequences the relationship with the government in London. The key component was the office of the high commissioner. By 1950 it was the main line of communications between the British and New Zealand governments.

Montgomerie shows that the war dramatically increased the roles of women, especially married women, in the labour force. Most of them took traditional female jobs. Some replaced men but the changes here were temporary and reversed in 1945. After the war, women left traditional male occupations and many women gave up paid employment to return home. There was no radical change in gender roles but the war intensified occupational trends under way since the 1920s.

Post-war

Mainstream New Zealand culture was deeply British and conservative, with the concept of "fairness" holding a central role. From the 1890s, the economy had been based almost entirely on the export of frozen meat and dairy products to Britain, and in 1961, the share of New Zealand exports going to the United Kingdom was still at slightly over 51%, with approximately 15% more going to other European countries. This system was irreparably damaged by Britain joining the European Economic Community in 1973, at a time of global economic upheaval regarding energy prices. Britain's accession to the European Community forced New Zealand to not only find new markets, but also re-examine its national identity and place in the world.

Maori urbanisation

Māori always had a high birth rate; that was neutralized by a high death rate until modern public health measures became effective in the 20th century when tuberculosis deaths and infant mortality declined sharply. Life expectancy grew from 49 years in 1926 to 60 years in 1961 and the total numbers grew rapidly. Many Māori served in the Second World War and learned how to cope in the modern urban world; others moved from their rural homes to the cities to take up jobs vacated by Pākehā servicemen. The shift to the cities was also caused by their strong birth rates in the early 20th century, with the existing rural farms in Māori ownership having increasing difficulty in providing enough jobs. Māori culture had meanwhile undergone a renaissance thanks in part to politician Apirana Ngata. World War II saw the beginning of a mass Māori migration to the cities, and by the 1980s 80% of the Māori population was urban, in contrast to only 20% before the war. The migration led to better pay, higher standards of living and longer schooling, but also exposed problems of racism and discrimination. By the late 1960s, a protest movement had emerged to combat racism, promote Māori culture and seek fulfilment of the Treaty of Waitangi.

Urbanisation proceeded rapidly across the land. In the late 1940s, town planners noted that the country was "possibly the third most urbanised country in the world", with two thirds of the population living in cities or towns. There was also increasing concern that this trend was badly managed, with it being noted that there was an "ill-defined urban pattern that appears to have few of the truly desirable urban qualities and yet manifests no compensating rural characteristics."

The "Muldoon years": 1975–1984

The country's economy suffered in the aftermath of the 1973 global energy crisis, the loss of New Zealand's biggest export market upon Britain's entry to the European Economic Community, and rampant inflation. Robert Muldoon, Prime Minister from 1975 to 1984, and his Third National government responded to the crises of the 1970s by attempting to preserve the New Zealand of the 1950s. He attempted to maintain New Zealand's "cradle to the grave" welfare state, which dated to 1935. His government sought to give retirees 80% of the current wage, which would require large-scale borrowing; critics said it would bankrupt the treasury. Muldoon's response to the crisis also involved imposing a total freeze on wages, prices, interest rates and dividends across the national economy. His conservatism and antagonistic style exacerbated an atmosphere of conflict in New Zealand, most violently expressed during the 1981 Springbok Tour. In the 1984 elections Labour promised to calm down the increasing tensions, while making no specific promises; it scored a landslide victory.

However, Muldoon's Government was not entirely backward looking. Some innovations did take place, for example the Closer Economic Relations (CER) free-trade programme with Australia to liberalise trade, starting in 1982. The aim of total free trade between the two countries was achieved in 1990, five years ahead of schedule. Also, in 1983 the term "dominion" was replaced with "realm" by letters patent.

Contemporary history

The radical 1980s reforms

In 1984, the Fourth Labour government was elected amid a constitutional and economic crisis. Unexpectedly, the Labour government between 1984-1990 launched a major policy of restructuring the economy radically reducing the role of government. Between 1984 and 1993, New Zealand underwent radical economic reform, moving from what had probably been the most protected, regulated and state-dominated system of any capitalist democracy to an extreme position at the open, competitive, free-market end of the spectrum.

The economic reforms were led by finance minister Roger Douglas (finance minister (1984-1988), who enacted fundamental, radically neo-liberal and unexpectedly pro-free market reforms known as Rogernomics. This involved removing many of the favours and barriers that had long insulated the economy from world trends. It involved floating the New Zealand dollar, cutting government spending, reducing most taxes and introducing a sales tax (GST), and removing most subsidies. Rogernomics resembled the contemporaneous policies of Margaret Thatcher in Britain and Ronald Reagan in the U.S. Rogernomics was a rapid programme of deregulation and public-asset sales. Subsidies were phased out to farmers and consumers. High finance was partly deregulated. Restrictions on foreign exchange were relaxed and the dollar was allowed to float and seek its natural level on the world market. The tax on high incomes was cut in half from 65% to 33%. The shares exchange entered a bubble, which then burst. Shares had a total value of $50 billion in 1987 and only $15 billion in 1991; Belich says that at one point the crash was "the worst in world." Overall the economic growth fell from 2% a year to 1%.

Strong criticism of Rogernomics came from the left, especially from Labour's traditional union and leftist support-base; Lange broke with Douglas's policies in 1987; both men were forced out and Labour was in confusion.

Other fourth Labour government innovations included greater recognition of the Treaty of Waitangi through the Waitangi Tribunal, Homosexual Law Reform, the Constitution Act 1986 and the New Zealand Bill of Rights.

The Fourth Labour Government also revolutionised New Zealand's foreign policy, making the country a nuclear-free zone and effectively leaving the ANZUS alliance. Immigration policy was liberalised, allowing an influx of immigrants from Asia. Previously most immigrants to New Zealand had been European and especially British, apart from some migrants from other Pacific Islands such as Samoa.

Oceania:

Post-war period

In 1946, Polynesians were granted French citizenship and the islands' status was changed to an overseas territory; the islands' name was changed in 1957 to Polynésie Française (French Polynesia).

Australia and New Zealand became dominions in the 20th century, adopting the Statute of Westminster Act in 1942 and 1947 respectively, marking their legislative independence from the United Kingdom. Hawaii became a U.S. state in 1959.

In 1962, France's early nuclear testing ground of Algeria became independent and the Maruroa atoll in the Tuamotu Archipelago was selected as the new testing site; tests were conducted underground after 1974.

In the whole, Australia and neighbor countries had period of economic growth in this time. Australia and New Zealand were military allies of the USA. The people of Oceania have got the independence.

Questions:

1. Describe the history of India in this time.
2. What were the main problems in the history of Indochina?
3. Compare the development of Australia and New Zealand in this time.

56. China and neighbor countries in 1950-1990.

a) China and neighbor countries.

2 sub-period – 1949-52 – period of reconstruction.

Period of the reconstruction of Chinese economy in the begin of 50-s fully corresponds to the NEP of 20-s in Russia. In the economy different sectors co-existed, among them the private one, the small and “national” bourgeoisie continued its existence, Mao called the Chinese abroad to invest money in the Chinese economy. The liquidation of big peasants did not take place, only the land of landlords was confiscated. Mao also did not hurry to create collective farms according to the Soviet example, in 1952 there were 10 collective farms in China. Instead of them the brigades of mutual help and agricultural cooperatives were created, where the private landownership of peasants was preserved. Bourgeoisie (besides the comprador one, connected with the West) did not lose its election rights in China, instead of the Soviets the meetings of people’s representatives from four classes (workers – to which the intelligentsia belonged, peasants, small and “national” bourgeoisie) were created. Theoretically, in the country the multiparty system, headed by CPC, existed. National minorities (among them Tibetans) has got big enough autonomy, in Tibet the rule of Dalai-lama was preserved. But the attack upon the bourgeoisie was made under the slogans “fight with three and five misuses”, the most important of which were corruption in the party itself, as well as bribery and refusal to pay taxes.

 In the foreign policy the important event was a conclusion of Soviet-Chinese treaty about friendship, union and mutual help for 30 years 1950, undersigned by Vyshinsky and Zhou Enlai. According to the treaty, directed first of all against Japan and its allies (i.e. USA), USSR was obliged to gibe back to China the military bases Port-Arthur and Dalny, Chinese Changchun (i.e. South Manzhurian) railway. Soviet Union gave to Chine the preferenced credit in amount of 300 mln. dollars, which had to be paid back till the end of 1963, also with the export of raw materials and tea. Instead of it China got the equipment and technologies. The treaty was certainly more profitable for China than for the USSR. Future has shown that the attempt of the USSR to make from China a satellite like the East European countries has got a fiasco.

1950-51 Chinese “volunteers” took an active part in the Korean war, which ended with the defeat of the USA and its allies and costed 20 bln. dollars. Historically China always looked upon Korea as its vassal, besides it the USA were revenged for the support of Chang Kaishek. Meanwhile the the Vietnam-French war took place without an active participation of China, because the North Vietnam, although was a part of China for a long time, preferred to have an independent policy.

In such a way, in the time of the reconstruction period the “democratic dictature (!) of people”, proclaimed by Mao, did not copy the contemporary Soviet Union. At the contrary, it used the experience of NEP of 20-s.

 3 period – 1953-57 - first five-year plan.

In this time with the help of the Soviet Union the industrialization takes place, about 700 industrial objects are built. A special attention is given to the development of North-East (Manzhuria), which becomes the main industrial center. A part of the state industry increases a lot. In the agriculture more and more cooperatives are organized, but a number of collective farms remains small (200 collective farms in 1954 at the background of 110 mln. peasants’ yards). The 6th plenary meeting of CC of CPC (1955) proclaims a struggle with the big peasants, but the mass liquidation of them according to the Stalin example does not take place. 1957 is a record year according to the harvest of grain and cotton. In that time an important part in the party is played by the secretary Liu Shaoqi, who was against the special companies “like agrarian reform”. The positions of Den Xiaopin also became stronger; at the VIIIth Congress of CPC (1956) he was elected a general secretary (Mao remained a head of party and of CPC). 1954 the Constitution of PRC is adopted. In the sphere of culture on the one side the number of students and pupil increases, on the other – a condemnation of some writers and philosophers (Hu Feng, Hu Shi) takes place, who were declared “ideologists of the big bourgeoisie”. It does not disturbs to Mao to speak about the tolerance in relation to the different directions of philosophy and literature (politics of “hundred flowers and hundred schools”). In the international plan the relations with the USSR remain at the good level, 1954 China is visited by Khrushchov. In the same year 19 Chinese divisions leave the North Korea. China tries to play an important part of Asia, 1954 at the Chinese-Indian meeting five principles of the peaceful coexistence (panca śīla) are proposed. Relations with Japan and USSR remain tensioned.

In such a way , the first Chinese five-year plan reminds the first Soviet one not in the whole. It appears that Mao studies at the experience of the USSR, where the mass collectivization caused the hunger of 1932-33. In that time the party is ruled by the moderate enough politicians, who do not hurry in the construction of socialism, which is seen as a task for 40-50 years. But the situation is changed soon.

In the whole the first period of modern Chinese history reminds the 20-s in the USSR, the period of NEP and the “state capitalism” and also brings good economic results.

2 period – 1958-65 – «great jump».

In the autumn of 1958 Mao proclaims a new program of socialism building, characterized with the creation of “people’s communes” in the village (a combination of collective farm and village council) and “small factories” in the town (among them the home steel melting). Results of adventurous “great jump” were evident: already 1960 the “temporary economic difficulties” began, the record harvests were changed by hunger and calamities with revolts, supported by Taiwan (1961-63). Now China buys grain, taxing the private help actions of foreign Chinese. In the party the opposition to chairman Mao, led by a head of state Liu Shaoqi appears, who calls to restore the individual peasant economy and to liquidate the ineffective “small factories”. “Big jump ahead” ends. 1959 the nuclear program begins, 1964 China blasts the first atomic bomb.

 In the foreign policy the deterioration of relations with the USSR takes place. Already at the international meeting of Communist parties 1960 China and Albania have a special position. In the same year the Soviet technicians go home, 178 industrial projects are stopped. After the Cuba crisis Mao breaks with the CPSU; 1964 he makes a speech about the “revisionism of Khrushchov”, who should have restored the capitalism in the USSR. 1964 China makes territorial pretensions on the Soviet Far East, Mongolia, parts of Kazakhstan and Kirgisia. From the historic point of view the Russian-Chinese treaties of 1858 and 1860, according to which Amur and Ussuri region became a part of Russia, certainly, did not differ from alike uneven treaties of China with other western powers, concluded at that time. But the territorial pretensions of China were certainly not accepted, which caused the stop of Chinese-Soviet friendship.

 Why Mao decided to deteriorate the relations with the USSR? The ideological differences were possibly not the main ground. Mao was not an orthodox Stalinist (like Albanian Enver Hoja), but a cunning “Asiatic despot”. The politics of peaceful coexistence, proclaimed by Khrushchov and some improvement of relations with the USA after the visit of Khrushchov 1959 could bring the suspects of Mao, that the Soviet Union could unite with the USA and other Western states against China (as the Czarist Russia did it to suppress the “yihetuang” revolt 1900. Therefore exactly then (not 1956) the relations with the Soviet Union became colder. The conflict between the two socialist states was certainly in the interests of the USA, which began the aggression against Vietnam in the middle of 60-s. One cannot forget that the Chinese anti-Soviet propaganda was an important part of the “cold war”. China blamed the Soviet communists, beginning from Khrushchov, as “hegemonists” and “social-imperialists”, and positioned itself as a protector of the interests of developing states. But the relations of China with some neighbor countries also became strained. 1957-1958 Taiwan is attacked. USA and China lead embassy talks in Poland from that time. The frontier conflicts with India take place, 1962 China attacks Assam (McMahon line) and Kashmir (Ladakh) and comes closer to Pakistan. 1964 PRC is recognized by France.

 The central government of China begins the hard course in relation to the autonomies, first of all to Tibet and the Interior Mongolia. They are made Chinese intensively, 1959 Dalai Lama XIV has to flee in India, the Buddhist temples are destroyed.

 In such a way, in China the second period remains the second period of the Soviet history (1927-36), which also had a compulsory collectivization and industrialization. Superficially the actions of Mao look like the contemporary adventurous actions of Khrushchov, “building the communism”, but stadially the Soviet Union and China are in the different stages of their development. China has a retardation of about 30 years in comparison of the USSR in its development.

3 period – 1966-76 – the period of culture revolution.

The aim of the “Great proletarian culture revolution” (from September 1965) was a fight with the opponents of Mao in the party, first of all with Liu Shaoqi. The announcement of CC of CPC in 16 points causes attacks against the literators and scholars as well as purgings in the party, army and economics. One of their victims is a writer Lao She. The defence minister Ling Biao (1907-71), who was distinguished already in the war with Japan 1937, was represented as the “second man” and calls to fight the reactionars. In Beijing and other cities the schoolpeople build the “Red guards”, favored by the Chairman Mao to fight the opposition and the state president Liu Shaoqi. Their terror is directed first of all against the bourgeoise habits of the upper class, everything foreign and “four old ones” (ideas, culture, morality, customs). In February 1967 the “Red guards” were dismissed. The supporters of Mao take the supreme government power in Beijing. In the October of 1968 the first phase of the culture revolution ends: Liu Shaoqi is excluded from the party and from all offices. The IXth Congress of CPC condemned Liu Shaoqi. Ling Biao still played an important part there, but soon he also became unfavored, was accused in the attempt of the coup d’etat, 1971 tried to flee in Mongolia and died. The campaign of condemnation of “ideas of Ling Biao and Confucius” began (a comparison with Confucius is a big honor for Ling Biao). It dominated also at the Xth Congress of CPC (1973), where the party veteran Zhou Enlai made a report (Mao was already 80 years old). The country was ruled by the “gang of four”, headed by the wife of Mao QianYin. The period is comparable with the Stalin purges and repressions. As in the Stalin VKP (b), in CPC the “right” (Liu Shaoqi, Ling Biao) and “left” (Wang Ming) biases were condemned, the “strengthening of class fight with the building of socialism” was preached. There were differences too: intelligents and party leaders were not physically liquidated, but were sent into the village for hard physical work. Here the peasant character of Mao’s party was evident, which looked more like the Russian “narodniks”, than like Bolsheviks. Already in the 30-s this tendency was noticeable, when Mao began to create “special regions” under the control of CPC, which consisted mostly from the villages. Mao (like his worst ebemy Chang Kaishek) was also influenced by the condemned by him Confucius. The many-volume works of Mao, edited in the 50-s according to the example of Lenin and Stalin works, are succeded with the “citate books” with a collection of his sayings (like the aphorisms of Confucius), alike citate books of own saying is published by Chang Kaishek, who was established firmly upon Taiwan. Former school teacher Mao even wrote poems in the classical Taoist style (but the fight with religion and destruction of temples is strengthening exactly in this epoch).

 The H-bomb is blasted in June 1967. The deterioration of the relations with the USSR reached its maximum, in March 1969 the frontier conflict upon Ussuri River takes place. The relations are also deteriorated by the speech of Brezhnev’s to support Liu Shaoqi (1967), as response to it in China the “revisionist Khrushchov-Brezhnev clique” and the invasion in Chechoslovakia 1968 are condemned. But, despite the war of the USA in the neighboring Vietnam, China makes better the relations to the USA. In April 1971 the “ping-pong diplomacy” begins. In July 1971 the adviser of Nixon Kissinger makes a secret visit to China. In February of 1972 China is visited by Nixon himself. In October 1971 PRC becomes a UNO member (earlier this place was taken by Taiwan); from its tribune the future “architect of the Chinese reforms” Den Xiaopin (some ideas of whom were condemned at the Xth Congress) criticizes “imperialism and social-imperialism”, developing the theory of “three worlds”, to the first one the USA and the USSR belong, to the second – the countries of the West and East Europe, “enslaved by the superpowers”, to the third – the developing countries, among them China. They are the “world village, which has to overcome the world town” (Ling Biao).

 The period is difficult for the Chinese culture, education (instead of classes the students are involved into the “revolutionary activity”) and economics. It corresponds to the 3rd and 4th periods of the USSR history (1937-56) and ends with the death of Zhou Enlai (January 1976) and Mao (9.9.1976). A bit earlier (5.4.1975) his main rival Chang Kaishek died (his wife, a daughter of Sung Yatsen, survived her husband almost for thirty years and died in New York). 1967 the last emperor of China, then emperor of Manzhouguo Pu Yi died too (he was even the deputy of the Chinese parliament, which is very different from the fate of the last emperor of Russia). The men, who decided the Chinese history in the XXth century, went to Confucius and Huan Chao. Now the most important question was: in which direction China will go? Will there the “de-Maoisation”, “democratization” and the reunification of the country take place?

4 period – 1976-89 – epoch of Den Xiaopin.

In February 1976 Hua Guofen becomes a prime minister. The “gang of four”, the Mao’s wife included, was made responsible for the “cultural revolution”, but Mao himself was not condemned. It differs from the events in the USSR after the the XXth Congress (but the condemnation of “gang of four” can be compared with the condemnation of “anti-party group” 1957). But when Khrushchov, having condemned Stalin in words, did not change the built in his time “socialist” system, but the successors of Mao made quite another thing: having left Mao as a symbol of revolution, they return in fact to the politics of 50-s, corresponding to the NEP, proclaiming the politics of “openness and reforms” and “four modernizations”. The main part in the party is now played by Den Xiaopin, who has a office of the head of Military Council, mewanwhile the general secretaries succeed each other (at the XIth Congress 1977 Hua Guofen was elected, at the XIIth Congress 1982 Hu Yaoban, at the XIIIth Congress 1987 Zhao Jiyan). At the XIIth Congress the plan to increase the GNP for a person in four times in twenty years is accepted (compare with an utopic plan to build communism for twenty years, accepted at the XXIInd Congress of CPC 1961). Den Xiaopin is not Chrushchov and does not propose utopic plans, but typologically the period corresponds to 1956-68 in the Soviet Union, the stadial retardation of China from the USSR is shortened to twenty years.

 In the foreign politics the old course of PRC is continued. PRC supports the criminal regime of Pol Pot in Campuchia, which murdered some millions of people. As revenge for the occupation of Campuchia by Vietnam 1979 China begins an invasion to Vietnam, which became a first war between two socialist states in the history! But invasion ends in the defeat of China and pulling out of the troops. China supports the Maoist insurgents in Nepal and other neighbor countries and strives to bring the developing countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America in the orbit of its influence, competing with the USSR and the USA, but together with the USA helps to the Islamic insurgents in Afghanistan, occupied by the USSR. The propaganda against the “imperialism and social-imperialism” continues, but China greets now the foreign investitions, especially American ones. After the end of termin of treaty with the USSR it was not continued. In the Eastern Europe China loses the ally Albania, which ruler Enver Hoxha remains at the Stalinist positions.

In May 1989 in Beijing the demonstration of students according to the visit of Gorbachov was liquidated. With this the Chinese leadership shows that it does not want to go the way of politic reforms, preferring the economic reforms under the control of the party. In the same year Jiang Zemin becomes a general secretary, which signifies the change to the new period.

It is a period of restauration of Chinese economics and culture after the damage, caused by the “cultural revolution”.

Taiwan:

Chinese Nationalist one-party rule

After the end of World War II, the Chinese Civil War resumed between the Chinese Nationalists (Kuomintang), led by Chiang Kai-shek, and the Chinese Communist Party, led by Mao Zedong. By 1949, a series of Chinese Communist offensives led to the defeat of the Nationalist army, and the Communists founded the People's Republic of China on 1 October.

In December 1949, Chiang evacuated his government to Taiwan and made Taipei the temporary capital of the ROC (also called the "wartime capital" by Chiang Kai-shek). Some 2 million people, consisting mainly of soldiers, members of the ruling Kuomintang and the intellectual and business elites, were evacuated from mainland China to Taiwan at that time, adding to the earlier population of approximately six million. In addition, the ROC government took to Taipei many national treasures including China's gold reserves and foreign currency reserves.

From this point onwards, the Kuomintang was reduced to control of Taiwan, Kinmen, Matsu Islands, and two major islands of Dongsha Islands and Nansha Islands. The Kuomintang continued to claim sovereignty over all "China", which it defined to include mainland China, Taiwan, Outer Mongolia and other areas. On mainland China, the victorious Communists claimed they ruled the sole and only China (which they claimed included Taiwan) and that the Republic of China no longer existed.

Martial law, declared on Taiwan in May 1949, continued to be in effect after the central government relocated to Taiwan. It was not repealed until 1987, and was used as a way to suppress the political opposition in the intervening years. During the White Terror, as the period is known, 140,000 people were imprisoned or executed for being perceived as anti-KMT or pro-Communist. Many citizens were arrested, tortured, imprisoned and executed for their real or perceived opposition to the Kuomintang. Since these people were mainly from the intellectual and social elite, an entire generation of political and social leaders was decimated. It was not until 2008 that a public apology was made for those actions. No form of restitution or compensation has been made as of 2010.

From this period through the 1980s, Taiwan was governed under the "Temporary Provisions Effective During the Period of Communist Rebellion". During this period of one-party rule, little distinction was made between the government and the Kuomintang, with public property, government property, and party property being largely interchangeable. Government workers and party members were mostly indistinguishable, with many government workers required to become KMT members, and party workers paid salaries and promised retirement benefits along the lines of government employees. In addition, the creation of other parties was outlawed, and many political opponents were persecuted and incarcerated.

Initially, the United States abandoned the KMT and expected that Taiwan would fall to the Communists. However, in 1950 the conflict between North Korea and South Korea, which had been ongoing since the Japanese withdrawal in 1945, escalated into full-blown war, and in the context of the Cold War, US President Harry S. Truman intervened again and dispatched the 7th Fleet into the Taiwan Straits to prevent hostilities between Taiwan and mainland China. In the Treaty of San Francisco and the Treaty of Taipei, which came into force respectively on 28 April 1952 and 5 August 1952, Japan formally renounced all right, claim and title to Taiwan and Penghu, and renounced all treaties signed with China before 1942. Neither treaty specified to whom sovereignty over the islands should be transferred, because the United States and the United Kingdom disagreed on whether the ROC or the PRC was the legitimate government of China. Continuing conflict of the Chinese Civil War through the 1950s, and intervention by the United States notably resulted in legislation such as the Sino-American Mutual Defense Treaty and the Formosa Resolution of 1955.

 With President Chiang Kai-shek, the U.S. President Dwight D. Eisenhower waved to crowds during his visit to Taipei in June 1960.

As the Chinese Civil War continued without truce, the government built up military fortifications throughout Taiwan. Within this effort, former KMT soldiers built the now famous Central Cross-Island Highway through the Taroko Gorge in the 1950s. The two sides would continue to engage in sporadic military clashes with seldom publicized details well into the 1960s on the nearby islands with an unknown number of night raids. During the Second Taiwan Strait Crisis in September 1958, Taiwan's landscape saw Nike-Hercules missile batteries added, with the formation of the 1st Missile Battalion Chinese Army that would not be deactivated until 1997. Newer generations of missile batteries have since replaced the Nike Hercules systems throughout the island.

During the 1960s and 1970s, the ROC maintained an authoritarian, single-party government while its economy became industrialized and technology oriented. This rapid economical growth, known as the Taiwan Miracle, was the result of a fiscal regime independent from mainland China and backed up, among others, by the support of US funds and demand for Taiwanese products. In the 1970s, Taiwan was economically the second fastest growing state in Asia after Japan. Taiwan, along with Hong Kong, South Korea and Singapore, became known as one of the Four Asian Tigers. Because of the Cold War, most Western nations and the United Nations regarded the ROC as the sole legitimate government of China until the 1970s. Later, especially after the termination of the Sino-American Mutual Defense Treaty, most nations switched diplomatic recognition to the PRC (see United Nations General Assembly Resolution 2758).

Up until the 1970s, the government was regarded by Western critics as undemocratic for upholding martial law, for severely repressing any political opposition and for controlling media. The KMT did not allow the creation of new parties and those that existed did not seriously compete with the KMT. Thus, competitive democratic elections did not exist. From the late 1970s to the 1990s, however, Taiwan went through reforms and social changes that transformed it from an authoritarian state to a democracy. In 1979, a pro-democracy protest known as the Kaohsiung Incident took place in Kaohsiung to celebrate Human Rights Day. Although the protest was rapidly crushed by the authorities, it is today considered as the main event that united Taiwan's opposition.

Democratization

Chiang Ching-kuo, Chiang Kai-shek's son and successor as the president, began to liberalize the political system in the mid-1980s. In 1984, the younger Chiang selected Lee Teng-hui, a Taiwanese-born, U.S.-educated technocrat, to be his vice president. In 1986, the Democratic Progressive Party (DPP) was formed and inaugurated as the first opposition party in Taiwan to counter the KMT. A year later Chiang Ching-kuo lifted martial law. With the advent of democratization, the issue of the political status of Taiwan gradually resurfaced as a controversial issue (previously, discussion of anything other than unification under the ROC was taboo).

After the death of Chiang Ching-kuo in January 1988, Lee Teng-hui succeeded him as president. Lee continued to democratize the government and decrease the concentration of government authority in the hands of mainland Chinese. Under Lee, Taiwan underwent a process of localization in which Taiwanese culture and history were promoted over a pan-China viewpoint in contrast to earlier KMT policies which had promoted a Chinese identity. Lee's reforms included printing banknotes from the Central Bank rather than the Provincial Bank of Taiwan, and streamlining the Taiwan Provincial Government with most of its functions transferred to the Executive Yuan. Under Lee, the original members of the Legislative Yuan and National Assembly, elected in 1947 to represent mainland Chinese constituencies and having held the seats without re-election for more than four decades, were forced to resign in 1991. The previously nominal representation in the Legislative Yuan was brought to an end, reflecting the reality that the ROC had no jurisdiction over mainland China, and vice versa. Restrictions on the use of Taiwanese Hokkien in the broadcast media and in schools were also lifted.

Mongolia:

In August 1945 Mongolian forces also took part in the Soviet Manchurian Strategic Offensive Operation in Inner Mongolia. The Soviet threat of seizing parts of Inner Mongolia induced China to recognize Outer Mongolia's independence, provided that a referendum be held. The referendum took place on October 20, 1945, with (according to official numbers) 100% of the electorate voting for independence.[citation needed] After the establishment of the People's Republic of China, both countries confirmed their mutual recognition on October 6, 1949. On January 26, 1952, Yumjaagiin Tsedenbal took power. In 1956 and again in 1962, Choibalsan's personality cult was condemned at the ruling Mongolian People's Revolutionary Party Central Committee plenums. Mongolia continued to align itself closely with the Soviet Union, especially after the Sino-Soviet split of the late 1950s. In the 1980s, an estimated 55,000 Soviet troops were based in Mongolia. While Tsedenbal was visiting Moscow in August 1984, his severe illness prompted the parliament to announce his retirement and replace him with Jambyn Batmönkh.

The introduction of perestroika and glasnost in the USSR by Mikhail Gorbachev strongly influenced Mongolian politics, leading to the peaceful Democratic Revolution and the introduction of a multi-party system and market economy.

Korea:

Korean War

With the surrender of Japan in 1945 the United Nations developed plans for a trusteeship administration, the Soviet Union administering the peninsula north of the 38th parallel and the United States administering the south. The politics of the Cold War resulted in the 1948 establishment of two separate governments, North Korea and South Korea.

On 9 September 1948 a North Korean state, called the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK), was proclaimed under the leadership of Kim Il-sung and took the governmental functions over from the Provisional People's Committee.

Since its founding, the most important position in the DPRK has been that of the leader of the Workers' Party of Korea (WPK) — titled as chairman from 1948 to 1966, general secretary from 1966 to 2011 and first secretary since 2011. For all intents and purposes, the WPK is the only legal party in the country (two minor parties exist, but are completely subservient to the WPK), and its leader exercises absolute control over the country. The government serves largely as a transmission belt for the party.

The formal head of state originally was the Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme People's Assembly. On December 28, 1972 party leader and Premier Kim Il-sung proclaimed himself President and thus become head of state. He held this office until his death on July 8, 1994 when he was proclaimed the "Eternal President of the Republic". Since then, de jure functions of the head of state had been returned to the Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme People's Assembly.

In June 1950 North Korea invaded the South, using Soviet tanks and weaponry. During the Korean War (1950–1953) more than one million people died and the three years of fighting throughout the nation effectively destroyed most cities. The war ended in an Armistice Agreement at approximately the Military Demarcation Line.

Division of Korea

The aftermath of World War II left Korea partitioned along the 38th parallel, with the north under Soviet occupation and the south under the occupation of other allied countries. Consequently, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, a Soviet-style socialist regime, was established in the north while the Republic of Korea, a Western-style republic, was established in the south. The Korean War broke out when Soviet-backed North Korea invaded South Korea, though neither side gained much territory as a result. The Korean Peninsula remains divided, the Korean Demilitarized Zone being the de facto border between the two states.

North Korea:

The relative peace between the south and the north following the armistice was interrupted by border skirmishes and assassination attempts. The North failed in several assassination attempts on South Korean leaders, most notably in 1968, 1974 and the Rangoon bombing in 1983; tunnels were frequently found under the DMZ and war nearly broke out over the Axe Murder Incident at Panmunjeom in 1976. In 1973, extremely secret, high-level contacts began to be conducted through the offices of the Red Cross, but ended after the Panmunjeom incident with little progress having been made and the idea that the two Koreas would join international organisations separately.

North Korea remained closely aligned to China and the Soviet Union until the mid-1960s. Recovery from the war was quick – by 1957 industrial production reached 1949 levels. Until the 1960s, economic growth was higher than in South Korea, and North Korean GDP per capita was equal to that of its southern neighbor as late as 1976. The last Chinese troops withdrew from the country in October 1958.

According to R.J. Rummel, forced labor, executions, and concentration camps were responsible for over one million deaths in North Korea from 1948 to 1987; others have estimated 400,000 deaths in concentration camps alone.

South Korea:

Since the 1960s, the South Korean economy has grown enormously and the economic structure was radically transformed. In 1957 South Korea had a lower per capita GDP than Ghana, and by 2008 it was 17 times as high as Ghana's.

n 1960, a student uprising (the "4.19 Revolution") led to the resignation of the autocratic President Syngman Rhee. A period of political instability followed, broken by General Park Chung-hee's military coup (the "5.16 coup d'état") against the weak and ineffectual government the next year. Park took over as president until his assassination in 1979, overseeing rapid export-led economic growth as well as political repression. Park was heavily criticised as a ruthless military dictator, although the Korean economy developed significantly during his tenure. The government developed the nation-wide highway system, the Seoul subway system, and laid the foundation for economic development during his tenure.

The years after Park's assassination were marked again by political turmoil, as the previously repressed opposition leaders all campaigned to run for president in the sudden political void. In 1979 there was Coup d'état of December Twelfth by General Chun Doo-hwan. After the Coup d'état, Chun Doo-hwan planned to rise to power with several measures. On May 17, Chun Doo-hwan forced the Cabinet to expand martial law to the whole nation, which had previously not applied to Jeju-do. The expanded martial law closed universities, banned political activities and further curtailed the press. Chun assumed the presidency by the event of May 17, triggering nationwide protests demanding democracy, in particular in the city of Gwangju, where Chun sent special forces to violently suppress the Gwangju Democratization Movement.

Chun subsequently created the National Defense Emergency Policy Committee and took the presidency according to his political plan. Chun and his government held Korea under a despotic rule until 1987, when a Seoul National University student, Park Jong-chul, was tortured to death. On June 10, the Catholic Priests Association for Justice revealed the incident, igniting huge demonstrations around the country. Eventually, Chun's party, the Democratic Justice Party, and its leader, Roh Tae-woo announced the 6.29 Declaration, which included the direct election of the president. Roh went on to win the election by a narrow margin against the two main opposition leaders, Kim Dae-Jung and Kim Young-Sam.

In 1988, Seoul hosted the 1988 Summer Olympics.

Vietnam:

1945–1954: First Indochina War

In 1941, the Viet Minh – a communist and nationalist liberation movement – emerged under the Marxist-Leninist revolutionary Ho Chi Minh, who sought independence for Vietnam from France and the end of the Japanese occupation. Following the military defeat of Japan and the fall of its puppet Empire of Vietnam in August 1945, the Viet Minh occupied Hanoi and proclaimed a provisional government, which asserted national independence on 2 September.

 In the same year, the Provisional French Republic sent the French Far East Expeditionary Corps – originally created to fight the Japanese occupation forces – to pacify the Vietnamese liberation movement and to restore French colonial rule. On 23 November 1946, French vessels bombarded the port city of Hai Phong, and the Viet Minh's guerrilla campaign against French forces began soon after. The resulting First Indochina War lasted until 20 July 1954.

Despite taking fewer losses during the course of the war – the Expeditionary Corps suffered one-third of the casualties of the Chinese and Soviet-backed Viet Minh – the French and Vietnamese loyalists eventually suffered a major strategic setback at the Siege of Dien Bien Phu, which allowed Ho Chi Minh to negotiate a ceasefire from a favorable position at the Geneva Conference of 1954. The colonial administration ended and French Indochina was dissolved under the Geneva Accords of 1954, which separated the forces of former French supporters and communist nationalists at the 17th parallel north with the Vietnamese Demilitarized Zone. A 300-day period of free movement was given, during which almost a million northerners, mainly Catholic, moved south, fearing persecution by the communists.

The partition of Vietnam, with Ho Chi Minh's Democratic Republic of Vietnam in North Vietnam, and Emperor Bảo Đại's State of Vietnam in South Vietnam, was not intended to be permanent by the Geneva Accords, and the Accords expressly forbade the interference of third powers. However, in 1955, the State of Vietnam's Prime Minister, Ngo Dinh Diem, toppled Bảo Đại in a fraudulent referendum organised by his brother Ngo Dinh Nhu, and proclaimed himself president of the Republic of Vietnam. Neither the United States government nor Ngo Dinh Diem's State of Vietnam signed anything at the 1954 Geneva Conference. With respect to the question of reunification, the non-communist Vietnamese delegation objected strenuously to any division of Vietnam, but lost out when the French accepted the proposal of Viet Minh delegate Pham Van Dong, who proposed that Vietnam eventually be united by elections under the supervision of "local commissions". The United States countered with what became known as the "American Plan," with the support of South Vietnam and the United Kingdom. It provided for unification elections under the supervision of the United Nations to prevent fraud, but was rejected by the Soviet and other communist delegations.

1954–1975: Vietnam War

The pro-Hanoi Vietcong began a guerrilla campaign in the late 1950s to overthrow Diem's government, which an official Vietcong statement described as a "disguised colonial regime." In the North, the communist government launched a land reform program, which, according to Steven Rosefielde, was "aimed at exterminating class enemies." It is estimated that between 50,000 and 172,000 people perished in the campaigns against wealthy farmers and landowners. Rosefielde discusses much higher estimates, ranging from 200,000 to 900,000, which include summary executions of National People's Party members. In the South, Diem went about crushing political and religious opposition, imprisoning, torturing or killing tens of thousands.

 In 1963, Buddhist discontent with Diem's pro-Catholic regime erupted into mass demonstrations following the banning of the Buddhist flag and the Hue Vesak shootings. With Diem unwilling to compromise, Nhu orchestrated the Xa Loi Pagoda raids; estimates of the death toll range into the hundreds. As a result, America's relationship with Diem broke down, resulting in the 1963 coup that saw Diem and Nhu assassinated.

The Diem era was followed by a series of corrupt military regimes that often lasted only months before being toppled by other military officers. With South Vietnam paralyzed by instability, the communists began to gain ground. There were more than a dozen South Vietnamese governments between 1961 and 1965, before the pairing of Air Marshal Nguyen Cao Ky and General Nguyễn Văn Thiệu took control in mid-1965. Thieu gradually outmaneuvered Ky and cemented his grip on power in fraudulent elections in 1967 and 1971.

To support South Vietnam's struggle against the communist insurgency, the United States began increasing its contribution of military advisers, using the controversial 1964 Tonkin Gulf incident as a pretext for such intervention. US forces became embroiled in ground combat operations in 1965, and at their peak they numbered more than 500,000. The US also engaged in a sustained aerial bombing campaign. Communist forces attacked major targets in South Vietnam en masse during the 1968 Tet Offensive, and although their campaign failed militarily, it shocked the American establishment, and turned US public opinion against the war. In the former capital city of Huế, communist troops captured the Imperial Citadel and much of the city, which led to the Battle of Huế. During the interim between the capture of the Citadel and end of the Battle of Huế, the communist forces massacred over 3,000 unarmed civilians. Communist forces supplying the Vietcong carried supplies along the Ho Chi Minh trail, which passed through Laos and Cambodia. Ho Chi Minh himself died 1969, Lê Duẩn became his successor.

Its own casualties mounting, and facing opposition to the war at home and condemnation abroad, the US began withdrawing from ground combat roles according to the Nixon Doctrine; the process was subsequently called Vietnamization. The effort had mixed results, ultimately failing to stabilize South Vietnam. The Paris Peace Accords of 27 January 1973 formally recognized the sovereignty of Vietnam "as recognized by the 1954 Geneva Agreements." Under the terms of the accords, all American combat troops were withdrawn by 29 March 1973. Limited fighting continued, before North Vietnam captured the province of Phuoc Long in December 1974 and started a full-scale offensive, culminating in the Fall of Saigon on 30 April 1975. South Vietnam briefly came under the nominal rule of a Provisional Revolutionary Government while under military occupation by North Vietnam. On 2 July 1976, North and South Vietnam were merged to form the Socialist Republic of Vietnam. The war left Vietnam devastated, with the total death toll standing at between 800,000 and 3.1 million, and many thousands more crippled by the use of chemical weapons such as Agent Orange.

1976–1990: reunification and reforms

In the aftermath of the war, under Lê Duẩn's administration, the government embarked on a mass campaign of collectivization of farms and factories. This caused an economic collapse and resulted in triple-digit inflation. Reconstruction of the war-ravaged country was slow, and serious humanitarian and economic problems confronted the communist regime. At least one million South Vietnamese were sent to reeducation camps, with an estimated 165,000 prisoners dying. Between 100,000 and 200,000 South Vietnamese were executed. R.J. Rummel, an analyst of political killings, estimated that about 50,000 South Vietnamese deported to "New Economic Zones" died performing hard labor, out of the 1 million that were sent. In the late 1970s and early 1980s, millions of people fled the country in crudely built boats, creating an international humanitarian crisis. Between 200,000 and 400,000 boat people died at sea.

In 1978, the Vietnamese military invaded Cambodia to remove from power the Khmer Rouge, who had been razing Vietnamese border villages and massacring the inhabitants. Vietnam was victorious, installing a regime in Cambodia whose leaders ruled until 1989. This action worsened relations with the Chinese, who launched a brief incursion into northern Vietnam in 1979. This conflict caused Vietnam to rely even more heavily on Soviet economic and military aid.

At the Sixth National Congress of the Communist Party of Vietnam in December 1986, reformist politicians upset by the country's lack of economic progress replaced the "old guard" government with new leadership. The reformers were led by 71-year-old Nguyen Van Linh, who became the party's new general secretary. Linh was a native of northern Vietnam who had served in the south both during and after the Vietnam War. In a historic shift, Linh and the reformers implemented a series of free-market reforms – known as Đổi Mới (Renovation) – which carefully managed the transition from a planned economy to a "socialist-oriented market economy".

Though the authority of the state remained unchallenged, the government encouraged private ownership of farms and factories, economic deregulation and foreign investment, while maintaining control over strategic industries. The Vietnamese economy subsequently achieved rapid growth in agricultural and industrial production, construction, exports and foreign investment. However, these reforms have also caused a rise in income inequality and gender disparities.

In the whole, China and its neighbors (Mongolia, North Korea, North Vietnam) went on the way of socialism. Vietnam was unified 1975. South Korea, where the US American forces were stationed, became a developed capitalist country. Taiwan remained in fact independent all the period.

b) Japan 1950-1990.

Occupation of Japan

Japan had never been occupied by a foreign power, and the arrival of the Americans with strong ideas about transforming Japan into a peaceful democracy had a major long-term impact. Japan came under the firm direction of American General Douglas MacArthur, The main American objective was to turn Japan into a peaceful nation and to establish democratic self-government. The occupation transformed the Japanese government into an engine of production, wealth redistribution, and social reform. Political reforms included a freely elected Japanese Diet (legislature) and universal adult suffrage. The Occupation emphasized land reform so that tenant farmers became owners of their rice paddies, and stimulated the formation of powerful labor unions that gave workers a say in industrial democracy. The great zaibatsu business conglomerates were broken up, consumer culture was encouraged, education was radically reformed and democratized, and the Shinto-basis of emperor worship was ended. Historian John Dower says the "visible hand" of New Deal-inspired state leadership, while keeping a capitalist economy, was welcomed by a battered and humiliated Japanese society that was eager to find a peaceful route forward into prosperity.

The reforms were implemented by Japanese officials under indirect American control, so that no Japanese institutions were directly controlled by Americans. While Emperor Hirohito was allowed to retain his throne as a symbol of national unity, actual power was held by complex interlocking networks of elites.

The Empire of Japan was dissolved. Japan was stripped of its overseas possessions and retained only the home islands and Okinawa. Manchukuo was dissolved, and Manchuria and Formosa were returned to China. Korea was occupied and divided by the U.S. and the Soviet Union. The U.S. became the sole administering authority of the Ryukyu, Bonin, and Volcano Islands, while the USSR took southern Sakhalin and the Kurile islands. Japan vehemently rejects Soviet control of the Kuriles, and diplomatic tension over the issue continued into the 21st century. Shutting down the empire meant that Japanese settlers and officials had leave. In all Japanese repatriation centers handled over 7 million expatriates returning to Japan.

The International Military Tribunal for the Far East (Tokyo Trial), an international war crimes tribunal, was held, in which seven politicians were executed. Emperor Hirohito was not convicted, but instead was turned into a figurehead emperor.

Shigeru Yoshida (1878–1967) played the central role as prime minister between 1946 and 1954 (with one interruption). His goal was rapid rebuilding Japan and cooperation with the American Occupation. He led Japan to adopt the “Yoshida Doctrine”, based on three tenets: economic growth as the primary national objective, no involvement in international political-strategic issues, and the provision of military bases to the United States. The Yoshida Doctrine proved immensely successful.

The historiography before 1980 was celebratory, and focused on the success of the American occupation in transforming Japan in terms of democracy and freedom. Since the 1980s historians more often stress the limitations of the occupation's reforms and argue that they partly reflected prewar and wartime Japanese innovations.

Peace treaty

Entering the Cold War with the Korean War, Japan came to be seen as an important ally of the US government. Political, economic, and social reforms were introduced, such as an elected Japanese Diet (legislature) and expanded suffrage. The country's constitution took effect on May 3, 1947. The United States and 45 other Allied nations signed the Treaty of Peace with Japan in September 1951. The U.S. Senate ratified the treaty on March 20, 1952, and under the terms of the treaty, Japan regained full sovereignty on April 28, 1952.

Under the terms of the peace treaty and later agreements, the United States maintains naval bases at Sasebo, Okinawa and at Yokosuka. A portion of the U.S. Pacific Fleet, including one aircraft carrier (currently USS George Washington (CVN-73)), is based at Yokosuka. This arrangement is partially intended to provide for the defense of Japan, as the treaty and the new Japanese constitution imposed during the occupation severely restrict the size and purposes of Japan Self-Defense Forces in the modern period.

Cold War

After a series of realignment of political parties, the conservative Liberal Democratic Party (LDP) and the leftist Social Democratic Party (SDP) were formed in 1955. The political map in Japan had been largely unaltered until early 1990s and LDP had been the largest political party in the national politics. LDP politicians and government bureaucrats focused on economic policy. From the 1950s to the 1980s, Japan experienced its rapid development into a major economic power, through a process often referred to as the Japanese post-war economic miracle.

Japan's biggest postwar political crisis took place in 1960 over the revision of the Japan-United States Mutual Security Assistance Pact. The new Treaty of Mutual Cooperation and Security, which renewed the United States role as military protector of Japan, was pushed through the Diet by LDP Prime Minister Eisaku Sato through the Diet in 1960 against the strong opposition of minority parties. Opponents on the left responded with massive street protests and political upheaval occurred, and the cabinet resigned a month after the Diet's ratification of the treaty. Thereafter, political turmoil subsided. Japanese views of the United States, after years of mass protests over nuclear armaments and the mutual defense pact, improved by 1972 with the reversion of United States-occupied Okinawa to Japanese sovereignty and the winding down of the Vietnam War.

Japan had reestablished relations with the Republic of China after World War II, and cordial relations were maintained with the nationalist government when it was relocated to Taiwan, a policy that won Japan the enmity of the People's Republic of China, which was established in 1949. After the general warming of relations between China and Western countries, especially the United States, which shocked Japan with its sudden rapprochement with Beijing in 1971, Tokyo established relations with Beijing in 1972. Close cooperation in the economic sphere followed. Japan's relations with the Soviet Union continued to be problematic after the war, but a Joint Declaration between Japan and the USSR ending the state of war and reestablishing diplomatic relations was signed October 19, 1956. The main object of dispute was the Soviet occupation of what Japan calls its Northern Territories, the two most southerly islands in the Kurils (Etorofu and Kunashiri) and Shikotan and the Habomai Islands, which were seized by the Soviet Union in the closing days of World War II.

Economic growth

Throughout the postwar period, Japan's economy continued to boom, with results far outstripping expectations. Given a massive boost by the Korean War, in which it acted as a major supplier to the UN force, Japan's economy embarked on a prolonged period of extremely rapid growth, led by the manufacturing sectors. Japan emerged as a significant power in many economic spheres, including steel working, car manufacturing and the manufacturing of electronic goods. Japan rapidly caught up with the West in foreign trade, GNP, and general quality of life. These achievements were underscored by the 1964 Tokyo Olympic Games and the Osaka International Exposition in 1970. The high economic growth and political tranquility of the mid to late 1960s were tempered by the quadrupling of oil prices by the OPEC in 1973. Almost completely dependent on imports for petroleum, Japan experienced its first recession since World War II. Another serious problem was Japan's growing trade surplus, which reached record heights during Nakasone's first term. The United States pressured Japan to remedy the imbalance, demanding that Tokyo raise the value of the yen and open its markets further to facilitate more imports from the United States.

In the whole, after the WWII Japan became one of the most developed countries of the capitalist world.

Questions:

1. Describe the Chinese history in this period.
2. What were the differences of the neighbor countries from China?
3. Describe the 2nd Indochina War.
4. What were the main features of Japanese history after the WWII?

Results of the XXVth period.

This period is usually understood as period of struggle of two systems – capitalist and socialist. The notion “social-imperialism” (going back till Mao Tsedong) is more correct, because in the reality the return to the period of imperialism takes place, and the politics of the USSR (at the end of period – also of PRC) is not very different from the politics of the USA. The thermonuclear bomb is invented, which makes the victory in the nuclear war impossible. The leaders of countries, who experienced the WWII, still believe in the victory in the WWIII (Khrushchev, Mao Tsedong, Den Xiaopin), which puts the world on the eve of the nuclear war (Caribic crisis 1962). But the understanding that the whole civilization will be destroyed in the new war strengthens. Therefore the local wars, like in the period of imperialism (in Korea, Vietnam, Afghanistan etc.), are led. Superpowers are the USA and the USSR, in response to the creation of NATO 1955 the Organisation of Warsaw Treaty is created, 1961 the Berlin wall is built, which confirms the partition of Germany. But old imperialistic states still exist, French and British commonwealths are created, France and the United Kingdom become the nuclear powers and sometimes lead an own policy, later China becomes a nuclear power and also begins own imperialistic policy (conflict with India 1962, with USSR 1969, attack of Vietnam 1979), and then is modernized under Den Xiaopin. The defeated countries – Germany (the Western - FRG) and Japan, helped with the USA – have an economic “wonder” and fight for markets. It is also promoted with the organisation of European Economic Union (1957), later entered by Spain, Portugal and Greece, where the Fascist regimes ceased to rule. Germany has new, third macrostage of history with following periods: 1.1945-49 period of occupation of the country with four occupational powers (USSR, USA, UK and France). 2.1949-61. From the proclamation of two German powers – FRG and DDR – to the building of Berlin wall. FRG, ruled by the chanceller Adenauer and his right-liberal coalition (CDU/CSU, FDP), has an economic “wonder” and builds a “prosperity society” with developed social rights, KPD is prohibited 1956, FRG enters the NATO 1954; GDR, where the Soviet army is stationed, is ruled by SUP of Ulbricht; the revolt of 1953 is suppressed, the “people’s democracy” is established. 3.1961-71. From the building of Berlin wall till the Berlin treaty of four powers. FRG is ruled by the right-liberal coalition till 1966 (chancellors Adenauer till 1963, then Erhard), then by the “great coalition” (1966-1969) under Kiesinger, after it the left-liberal coalition (SPG, FDP) under Brandt. The country goes left, 1968 the student protests take place. GDR is ruled by Ulbricht 4.1971-1982. The period of “détente”. FRG is ruled by the left-liberal coalition (till 1974 chancellor Brandt, then Schmidt), FRG by Honecker. The relations between both German states become better, a row of treaties are concluded. According to the Helsinki treaty of 1975 the frontiers in Europe have to be unchangeable. One speaks about two German states and about two German nations – capitalist and socialist. 5.1982-1990. In FRG the right coalition returns to power 1982 under Kohl, as result of “perestroika” 1990 GDR is liquidated, Berlin wall is destroyed. The successor the II International is the Socialist International (founded in 1951), in the countries of the Western Europe the socialist parties come to power, which follow the policy of social reforms, making better the life level of population. In 70-s the “cold war” is succeeded with “détente”, then – with a new “cold war”. The appearance of television makes easy “the brain washing” to the population. The cosmic era begins, flights into the space and to the Moon are made, but satellites are used mostly for military and intelligence purposes. Nuclear energetic makes progress, but catastrophes take place (Lake Placids 1979, Chernobyl 1986). The number of countries reaches almost 200; politically liberated, but economically dependent countries of the “third world” fight each other (India – Pakistan, Iraq – Iran), at the Near East Arabic countries make wars with Israel (created 1948) and become rich for the cost of oil. Islamic forces become active, making revolutions in some countries (Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan), which shows the tendency to the return to Middle Ages (“neofeodalism”). The Soviet Union, leading active policy in Asia and Africa, supporting the countries of “socialist orientation”, decays economically. In the second part of 80-s the Soviet Union cannot carry the burden of “arms running”, in the result of “perestroika” (rebuilding) of Gorbachev the socialist system in Europe is destroyed, the Warsaw Treaty is dissolved, Germany is united; in the same time the socialist system remains in the modernized China and some other countries of Asia and in Cuba. Western democracy celebrates the victory, when 1991 the Soviet Union is destroyed. But this triumph was ahead of time.

Questions:

1. Describe the 25th period of the world history.

XXVI (VIII) period.

6th period of the industrial society – 1990- till now – period of neoliberalism.

57. America from 1990 till now.

a) North America in 1990 till now.

1. History of Canada (1992–present)

Following Mulroney's resignation as prime minister in 1993, Kim Campbell took office and became Canada's first female prime minister. Campbell remained in office only for a few months: the 1993 election saw the collapse of the Progressive Conservative Party from government to two seats, while the Quebec-based sovereigntist Bloc Québécois became the official opposition. Prime Minister Jean Chrétien of the Liberals took office in November 1993 with a majority government and was re-elected with further majorities during the 1997 and 2000 elections. In 1995, the government of Quebec held a second referendum on sovereignty that was rejected by a margin of 50.6% to 49.4%. In 1998, the Canadian Supreme Court ruled unilateral secession by a province to be unconstitutional, and Parliament passed the Clarity Act outlining the terms of a negotiated departure. Environmental issues increased in importance in Canada during this period, resulting in the signing of the Kyoto Accord on climate change by Canada's Liberal government in 2002. The accord was in 2007 nullified by the present government, which has proposed a "made-in-Canada" solution to climate change. Canada became the fourth country in the world and the first country in the Americas to legalize same-sex marriage nationwide with the enactment of the Civil Marriage Act. Court decisions, starting in 2003, had already legalized same-sex marriage in eight out of ten provinces and one of three territories. Before the passage of the Act, more than 3,000 same-sex couples had married in these areas. The Canadian Alliance and PC Party merged into the Conservative Party of Canada in 2003, ending a 13-year division of the conservative vote. The party was elected twice as a minority government under the leadership of Stephen Harper in the 2006 federal election and 2008 federal election. Harper's Conservative Party won a majority in the 2011 federal election with the New Democratic Party forming the Official Opposition for the first time. Under Harper, Canada and the United States continue to integrate state and provincial agencies to strengthen security along the Canada-United States border through the Western Hemisphere Travel Initiative. From 2002 to 2011, Canada was involved in the Afghanistan War as part of the U.S. stabilization force and the NATO-commanded International Security Assistance Force. In July 2010 the largest purchase in Canadian military history, totalling C$9 billion for the acquisition of 65 F-35 fighters, was announced by the federal government. Canada is one of several nations that assisted in the development of the F-35 and has invested over C$168 million in the program.

In the whole, Canada remains one of the developed countries of the capitalist world.

2. USA from 1990 till now.

The United States emerged as the world's sole remaining superpower and continued to intervene in international affairs during the 1990s, including the 1991 Gulf War against Iraq. Following his election in 1992, President Bill Clinton oversaw one of the longest periods of economic expansion and unprecedented gains in securities values, a side effect of the digital revolution and new business opportunities created by the Internet. He also worked with the Republican Congress to pass the first balanced federal budget in 30 years.In 1998, Clinton was impeached by the House of Representatives on charges of "high crimes and misdemeanors" for lying about a sexual relationship with White House intern Monica Lewinsky, but was later acquitted by the Senate. The failure of impeachment and the Democratic gains in the 1998 election forced House Speaker Newt Gingrich, a Republican, to resign from Congress.

The presidential election in 2000 between George W. Bush and Al Gore was one of the closest in U.S. history, and helped lay the seeds for political polarization to come. The vote in the decisive state of Florida was extremely close and produced a dramatic dispute over the counting of votes. The U.S. Supreme Court in Bush v. Gore ended the recount with a 5–4 vote. That meant Bush, then in the lead, carried Florida and the election.On September 11, 2001 (9/11), the United States was struck by a terrorist attack when 19 al-Qaeda hijackers commandeered four airliners and intentionally crashed into both twin towers of the World Trade Center and into the Pentagon, killing nearly 3000 people, mostly civilians. In response on September 20, President George W. Bush announced a "War on Terror". On October 7, 2001, the United States and NATO then invaded Afghanistan to oust the Taliban regime, which had provided safe haven to al-Qaeda and its leader Osama bin Laden.The federal government established new domestic efforts to prevent future attacks. The controversial USA PATRIOT Act increased government's power to monitor communications and removed legal restrictions on information sharing between federal law enforcement and intelligence services. A cabinet-level agency called the Department of Homeland Security was created to lead and coordinate federal counter-terrorism activities.Some of these anti-terrorism efforts, particularly the U.S. government's handling of detainees at the prison at Guantanamo Bay, led to allegations toward the U.S. government of human rights violations. President Obama forbade torture, but in general retained Bush's policy regarding the Guantanamo detainees. In 2003, the United States launched an invasion of Iraq, which led to the collapse of the Iraqi government and the eventual capture of Iraqi dictator Saddam Hussein, with whom the U.S. had long-standing tense relations. The reasons for the invasion cited by the Bush administration included the spreading of democracy, the elimination of weapons of mass destruction (a key demand of the UN as well, though later investigations found parts of the intelligence reports to be inaccurate) and the liberation of the Iraqi people. Despite some initial successes early in the invasion, the continued Iraq War fueled international protests and gradually saw domestic support decline as many people began to question whether or not the invasion was worth the cost. In 2007, after years of violence by the Iraqi insurgency, President Bush deployed more troops in a strategy dubbed "the surge". While the death toll decreased, the political stability of Iraq remained in doubt. In December 2007, the United States, and most of Europe, entered the longest post–World War II recession, often called a "Great Recession." Major problems included a housing market crisis, a subprime mortgage crisis, soaring oil prices, an automotive industry crisis, rising unemployment, and the worst financial crisis since the Great Depression. The financial crisis hit a critical point in September 2008 when Lehman Brothers and other important financial institutions failed. Starting in October the federal government lent $245 billion to financial institutions through the Troubled Asset Relief Program which was signed into law under the Bush administration.

In 2008, the unpopularity of President Bush and the Iraq war, along with the 2008 financial crisis, led to the election of Barack Obama, the first African American President of the United States. As president, Obama officially ended combat operations in Iraq on August 31, 2010, but kept 50,000 in Iraq to assist Iraqi forces, help protect withdrawing forces, and work on counter-terrorism. In December 2011, the war was declared formally over and the last troops left the country. At the same time, Obama increased American involvement in Afghanistan, starting a surge strategy using an additional 30,000 troops, while proposing to begin withdrawing troops at a later point. In May 2011, after nearly a decade in hiding, the founder and leader of Al Qaeda Osama bin Laden was killed in Pakistan in a raid conducted by U.S. naval special forces acting under President Obama's direct orders. While Al Qaeda was near collapse in Afghanistan, affiliated organizations continued to operate in Yemen and other remote areas, as the CIA used drones to hunt down and remove its leadership. As the recession worsened, Barack Obama - who had run on a platform of change and opposition to the policies of the unpopular incumbent President Bush - was elected president with the help of a coalition of voters that largely consisted of African-Americans, Hispanics, Asians, women and young Americans. Shortly after taking office in January 2009, he signed into law a $787 billion economic stimulus package aimed at helping the economy recover from the deepening recession. In addition to the economic stimulus, the government took steps to rescue the auto industry and prevent future economic meltdowns. These included a bailout of General Motors and Chrysler, putting ownership temporarily in the hands of the government, and the "cash for clunkers" program which temporarily boosted new car sales. Congress enacted the Dodd–Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act, a bill that makes sweeping changes to the financial regulatory system. In June 2009, the recession officially ended and the U.S. economy began to expand once again.The unemployment rate peaked at 10.1% in October, followed by a slow economic recovery. The beginning of the 2010s saw the rise of new political movements across the world, such as the conservative Tea Party movement in the U.S., the international populist Occupy movement and the pro-democratic Arab Spring movement in the Middle East. The 111th Congress saw the passage of major legislation such as the Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act, the Dodd-Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act and the Don't Ask, Don't Tell Repeal Act, which were signed into law by President Obama.In the 2010 midterm elections, the Republicans regained control of the House and installed John Boehner as Speaker.[180] The newly divided Congress presided over a period of elevated gridlock and heated debates over whether or not raise the debt ceiling, extending tax cuts for citizens making less than $250,000 annually, and many other key issues. As a result of growing public frustration with both parties in Congress, their approval rating fell to an all time low of 11%. In 2012, after heated debates centered on the economy, job creation, economic inequality, deficit spending, the role of public sector labor unions, health care, gun control and abortion, President Obama was reelected in November with the help of a similar voter coalition as in 2008. The Democrats also made modest gains in Congress, although the Republicans retained control of the House. While the GOP continued to do well in its base of evangelical voters and older white men, party leaders were concerned that their base was aging and shrinking in size, especially as the numbers of Hispanic and Asian voters grew rapidly and they moved more and more into the Democratic coalition.Other major events that year included severe weather, as over half the country suffered from record drought over the summer and Hurricane Sandy resulted in massive damage in coastal areas of New York and New Jersey in late October; a rise in mass shootings in the U.S., most notably those in Aurora, Colorado and in Newtown, Connecticut; and the "fiscal cliff" of the expiring tax cuts and sequester cuts in spending included in the Budget Control Act of 2011, which Congress and the President averted on January 1, 2013 by raising taxes on investments, on capital gains and on families earning over $450,000 a year and delaying the spending cuts.As of February 2013, debates continue over deficit reduction, tax reform, immigration reform, gun control and U.S. foreign policy in the Middle East. President Obama promissed to withdraw 34,000 of USA soldiers from Afganistan 2013 and all forces in 2014.

In the whole, in the 6th period the USA remained the strongest capitalist country and led an imperialistic policy in different parts of the world. Its population grew from 246 mill. till 313 mln.

b) Latin America since 1990.

Washington Consensus

The set of specific economic policy prescriptions that were considered the "standard" reform package were promoted for crisis-wracked developing countries by Washington, DC-based institutions such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank, and the US Treasury Department during the 80's and 90's. In recent years, several Latin American countries led by socialist or other left wing governments—including Argentina and Venezuela—have campaigned for (and to some degree adopted) policies contrary to the Washington Consensus set of policies. (Other Latin counties with governments of the left, including Brazil, Chile and Peru, have in practice adopted the bulk of the policies). Also critical of the policies as actually promoted by the International Monetary Fund have been some US economists, such as Joseph Stiglitz and Dani Rodrik, who have challenged what are sometimes described as the "fundamentalist" policies of the International Monetary Fund and the US Treasury for what Stiglitz calls a "one size fits all" treatment of individual economies. The term has become associated with neoliberal policies in general and drawn into the broader debate over the expanding role of the free market, constraints upon the state, and US influence on other countries' national sovereignty.

Turn to the left

Since the 2000s, or 1990s in some countries, left-wing political parties have risen to power. Hugo Chavez ( in Venezuela, Lula da Silva and Dilma Rousseff in Brazil, Fernando Lugo in Paraguay, Néstor and Cristina Kirchner in Argentina, Tabaré Vázquez and José Mujica in Uruguay, the Lagos and Bachelet governments in Chile, Evo Morales in Bolivia, Daniel Ortega in Nicaragua, Manuel Zelaya in Honduras (although deposed by the 28 June 2009 coup d'état), and Rafael Correa of Ecuador are all part of this wave of left-wing politicians who also often declare themselves socialists, Latin Americanists or anti-imperialists.

Nicaragua: Ortega failed to get re-elected in 1990, 1996 and in 2001 but was re-elected in 2006. Prior to the earthquake in Haiti, in 2003 Nicaragua surpassed Haiti as the poorest nation in Central America. Unemployment was around 50%. In more recent years, Daniel Ortega seems to be taking great strides towards making health care, education, and work more accessible to the masses. For example, unemployment is now just 5%, but underemployment (not enough work to provide for ones self or a family) is still 48%. The main source of work remains agriculture and sweat-shop style labour. With education and health care more readily available, there is much hope for Nicaragua’s future. Tourism, for example, has risen more than 70% in the last ten years. As the country stabilized politically, people began to take notice of the stunning landscape and history in Nicaragua. From soaring volcanos to white sand beaches, and spanish colonial buildings around every turn, it is a country with much to offer. It touches both the Caribbean and the Pacific ocean, with lakes and valleys and jungle in between. It is home to resilient, humble, honest, beautiful people. It is becoming known for its rum, cigars, and world-class surf spots. Exports such as Fairly-Traded coffee beans are beginning to provide stable income and work for farming families.

Argentina: The successive Presidents from Carlos Menem (1989) to Fernando de la Rua (1999) all had to face severe economic troubles. Nestor Kirchner was voted into office in 2003.

Questions:

1. How the political course of Clinton's administration differs from the policy of his predecessors?

2. What is the difference between the policy of George W. Bush and Barak Obama?

3. What changes are there in the Latin America in this period?

58. West Europe from 1990 till now.

1. Iberian countries.

Portugal:

Portugal's last overseas territory, Macau, was handed over to the People's Republic of China (PRC) in 1999, under the 1987 joint declaration that set the terms for Macau's handover from Portugal to the PRC. In 2002, the independence of East Timor (Asia) was formally recognized by Portugal, after an incomplete decolonization process that was started in 1975 because of the Carnation Revolution.

On 26 March 1995, Portugal started to implement Schengen Area rules, eliminating border controls with other Schengen members while simultaneously strengthening border controls with non-member states. In 1996 the country was a co-founder of the Community of Portuguese Language Countries (CPLP) headquartered in Lisbon. Expo '98 took place in Portugal and in 1999 it was one of the founding countries of the euro and the eurozone.

On 5 July 2004, José Manuel Barroso, then Prime Minister of Portugal, was nominated President of the European Commission, the most powerful office in the European Union. On 1 December 2009, the Treaty of Lisbon entered into force, after had been signed by the European Union member states on 13 December 2007 in the Jerónimos Monastery, in Lisbon, enhancing the efficiency and democratic legitimacy of the Union and improving the coherence of its action.

Economic disruption and an unsustainable government debt in the wake of the late-2000s financial crisis led the country to negotiate in 2011 with the IMF and the European Union, through the European Financial Stability Mechanism (EFSM) and the European Financial Stability Facility (EFSF), a loan to help the country stabilise its finances.

Spain:

The PSOE was replaced in government by the Partido Popular (PP) after the latter won the 1996 General Elections; at that point the PSOE had served almost 14 consecutive years in office.

On 1 January 2002, Spain ceased to use the peseta as currency replacing it with the euro, which it shares with 16 other countries in the Eurozone. Spain has also seen strong economic growth, well above the EU average; however, well publicised concerns issued by many economic commentators at the height of the boom that the extraordinary property prices and high foreign trade deficits of the boom were likely to lead to a painful economic collapse were confirmed by a severe property-led recession that struck the country in 2008/9.

A series of bombs exploded in commuter trains in Madrid, Spain on 11 March 2004. After a five-month trial in 2007 it was concluded the bombings were perpetrated by a local Islamist militant group inspired by al-Qaeda. The bombings killed 191 people and wounded more than 1800, and the intention of the perpetrators may have been to influence the outcome of the Spanish general election, held three days later.

Though initial suspicions focused on the Basque group ETA, evidence soon emerged indicating possible Islamist involvement. Because of the proximity of the election, the issue of responsibility quickly became a political controversy, with the main competing parties PP and PSOE exchanging accusations over the handling of the aftermath. At 14 March elections, PSOE, led by José Luis Rodríguez Zapatero, obtained a plurality, enough to form a new cabinet with Rodríguez Zapatero as the new Presidente del Gobierno or Prime Minister of Spain, thus succeeding the former PP administration.

The bursting of the Spanish property bubble in 2008 led to the 2008–2012 Spanish financial crisis.

In the whole, the Iberian countries confronted with the crisis in this period.

2.British isles.

Ireland:

There were significant policy changes from 1989 onwards, with economic reform, tax cuts, welfare reform, an increase in competition, and a ban on borrowing to fund current spending. This policy began in 1989–1992 by the Fianna Fáil/Progressive Democrat government, and continued by the subsequent Fianna Fáil/Labour government and Fine Gael/Labour/Democratic Left government. Ireland became one of the world's fastest growing economies by the late 1990s in what was known as the Celtic Tiger period, which lasted until the global financial crisis of 2007–2010.

In the Northern Ireland question, Irish governments started to seek a peaceful reunification of Ireland and have usually cooperated with the British government in the violent conflict involving many paramilitaries and the British Army in Northern Ireland known as "The Troubles". A peace settlement for Northern Ireland, the Belfast Agreement, was approved in 1998 in referendums north and south of the border. As part of the peace settlement, Ireland dropped its territorial claim to Northern Ireland.

United Kingdom:

Major replaced the Poll Tax with the council tax and oversaw British involvement in the Gulf War. Despite a recession, Major led the Conservatives to a surprise victory in 1992. The events of Black Wednesday in 1992, party disunity over the European Union and several scandals involving Conservative politicians led to Labour under Tony Blair winning a landslide election victory in 1997. Labour had shifted its policies closer to the political centre, under the new name 'New Labour'. The Bank of England was nationalised and Scotland and Wales were both given a devolved Scottish Parliament and Welsh Assembly respectively. A devolved power sharing Northern Ireland Executive was established in 1998, believed by many to be the end of The Troubles.

Blair led Britain into the controversial Iraq War, which contributed to his eventual resignation in 2007, when he was succeeded by his Chancellor Gordon Brown. A global recession in the late 2000s (decade) led to Labour being defeated in the 2010 election and replaced by a Conservative-Liberal Democrat coalition, headed by David Cameron, which has pursued a large series of public spending cuts to help reduce Britain's budget deficit.

2012 60 years of Elisabeth II’ rule were celebrated.

In the whole, both Ireland and the UK remained the members of the EU. The parts of the UK have got a bigger autonomy.

3.Benelux countries.

Faced with both global and continental changes as well as the expiry of the constitutive Treaty (2008), the Benelux countries have felt the need to define new objectives, so that, in the contest of an enlarged Europe, their union may continue to be a forum of ideas and suggestions for the advancement of a Community project. The risk of being marginalized after the opening up of the Union to Eastern European countries has led Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg, as co-founding countries of small to medium stature, to establish a broader basis for their cooperation that goes beyond the economic field. This means introducing into their dialogue platform issues such as immigration, security and energy. In particular, this implies an institutional revision to strengthen the legislative role of parliament to help address the lack of democracy that still plagues the EU and international organizations in general.

Netherlands:

On 10 October 2010 the Netherlands Antilles—a former country of the Kingdom of the Netherlands in the Caribbean—was dissolved. Referendums were held on each island of the Netherlands Antilles between June 2000 and April 2005 to determine their future status. As a result the islands of Bonaire, Sint Eustatius and Saba (the BES islands) were to obtain closer ties with the Netherlands. This led to the incorporation of these three islands into the country of the Netherlands as special municipalities upon the dissolution of the Netherlands Antilles. The special municipalities are collectively known as the Caribbean Netherlands.

Belgium:

Albert II is a king from 1993.

A string of Christian Democrat coalition governments was broken in 1999 after the first dioxin crisis, a major food contamination scandal. A "rainbow coalition" emerged from six parties: the Flemish and the French-speaking Liberals, Social Democrats, Greens.[34] Later, a "purple coalition" of Liberals and Social Democrats formed after the Greens lost most of their seats in the 2003 election. The government led by Prime Minister Guy Verhofstadt from 1999 to 2007 achieved a balanced budget, some tax reforms, a labour-market reform, scheduled nuclear phase-out and instigated legislation allowing more stringent war crime and more lenient soft drug usage prosecution. Restrictions on withholding euthanasia were reduced and same-sex marriage legalized. The government promoted active diplomacy in Africa and opposed the invasion of Iraq.

Verhofstadt's coalition fared badly in the June 2007 elections. For more than a year, the country experienced a political crisis. This crisis was such that many observers speculated on a possible partition of Belgium. From 21 December 2007 until 20 March 2008 the temporary Verhofstadt III Government was in office. This coalition of the Flemish and Francophone Christian Democrats, the Flemish and Francophone Liberals together with the Francophone Social Democrats was an interim government until 20 March 2008. On that day a new government, led by Flemish Christian Democrat Yves Leterme, the actual winner of the federal elections of June 2007, was sworn in by the king. On 15 July 2008 Leterme announced the resignation of the cabinet to the king, as no progress in constitutional reforms had been made. In December 2008 he once more offered his resignation to the king after a crisis surrounding the sale of Fortis to BNP Paribas. At this juncture, his resignation was accepted and Christian Democratic and Flemish Herman Van Rompuy was sworn in as Prime Minister on 30 December 2008.

After Herman Van Rompuy was designated the first permanent President of the European Council on 19 November 2009, he offered the resignation of his government to King Albert II on 25 November 2009. A few hours later, the new government under Prime Minister Yves Leterme was sworn in. On 22 April 2010, Leterme again offered the resignation of his cabinet to the king after one of the coalition partners, the OpenVLD, withdrew from the government, and on 26 April 2010 King Albert officially accepted the resignation. The Parliamentary elections in Belgium on 13 June 2010 saw the Flemish nationalist N-VA become the largest party in Flanders, and the Socialist Party PS the largest party in Wallonia. Until December 2011, Belgium was governed by Leterme's caretaker government awaiting the end of the deadlocked negotiations for formation of a new government. By 30 March 2011 this set a new world record for the elapsed time without an official government, previously held by war-torn Iraq. Finally, in December 2011 the current government led by Walloon socialist Prime Minister Elio Di Rupo was sworn in.

Luxembourg:

In 1999, it joined the euro currency area. 2000 Henri became a Great Duke. In 2005, a referendum on the EU treaty establishing a constitution for Europe was held in Luxembourg.

In the whole, the Benelux countries were successful in this time, continuing to be constitutional monarchies.

4.France.

5th period (1995-2007).

Jacques Chirac assumed office as president on 17 May 1995, after a campaign focused on the need to combat France's stubbornly high unemployment rate. While France continues to revere its rich history and independence, French leaders increasingly tie the future of France to the continued development of the European Union. In 1999, the Euro was introduced to replace the French franc. Beyond membership in the European Union, France is also involved in many joint European projects such as Airbus, the Galileo positioning system and the Eurocorps.

The French have stood among the strongest supporters of NATO (having returned in its military organization) and EU policy in the Balkans to prevent genocide in Yugoslavia. French troops joined the 1999 NATO bombing of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. France has also been actively involved against international terrorism. Conscription was abolished in 2001.

In 2002 Alliance Base, an international Counterterrorist Intelligence Center, was secretly established in Paris. The same year France contributed to the toppling of the Taliban regime in Afghanistan, but it strongly rejected the 2003 invasion of Iraq, even threatening to veto in central coners in the US proposed resolution.

Jacques Chirac was reelected in 2002, mainly because his socialist rival Lionel Jospin was defeated by the extreme right wing candidate Jean-Marie Le Pen. France was struck by a long period of civil unrest in 2005 after the death of two teenagers.

In the whole, it was a period of the internal problems an active foreign policy.

6th period (2007 -

The cabinet minister and rival Nicolas Sarkozy was elected and took office on 16 May 2007. The problem of high unemployment has yet to be resolved. In 2008, France was one of the first states to recognise Kosovo as an independent nation.

In 2012 Sarkozy ran for re-election but was defeated by François Hollande who advocated a growth policy in contrast to the austerity policy advocated by Germany's Angela Merkel as a way of tackling the European sovereign debt crisis.

In the whole, France remained a developed capitalist country, influential in the EU and active in the foreign policy.

5.Nordic countries.

Since 1996, these countries have been part of the larger EU directive Schengen Agreement area, comprising 30 countries in Europe. Border checkpoints have been removed within the Schengen zone and only a national ID card is required. Within the Nordic area any means of proving one's identity, e.g. a driving licence, is valid for Nordic citizens, because of the Nordic Passport Union.

Since March 25, 2001, the Schengen acquis has fully applied to the five countries of the Nordic Passport Union (except for the Faroe Islands). There are some areas in the Nordic Passport Union that give extra rights for Nordic citizens, not covered by Schengen, such as less paperwork if moving to a different Nordic country, and fewer requirements for naturalisation.

Iceland:

In the begin of 90-s Iceland would become the first country to recognize the independence of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania as they broke away from the USSR. Throughout the 1990s, the country expanded its international role and developed a foreign policy that was oriented toward humanitarian and peacekeeping causes. To that end, Iceland provided aid and expertise to various NATO-led interventions in Bosnia, Kosovo, and Iraq. The economy was greatly diversified and liberalised when Iceland joined the European Economic Area in 1994. The US withdrew the last of its forces on 30 September 2006.

2008–2012 Icelandic financial crisis and 2009 Icelandic financial crisis protests

In the years 2003–2007, following the privatization of the banking sector under the government of Davíð Oddsson, Iceland moved from being a nation best known for its fishing industry toward having an economy based on financial services and investment banking. It was quickly becoming one of the most prosperous countries in the world before getting hit hard by a major financial crisis. The crisis resulted in the greatest migration from Iceland since 1887, with a net emigration of 5,000 people in 2009. Iceland's economy has since stabilized under the government of Jóhanna Sigurðardóttir, and is expected to grow by 2.8% in 2012.

Norway:

Harald V became a king 1991.

Norway's first female prime minister, Gro Harlem Brundtland (1981, 1986-89, 1990-96) of the Labour party, continued many of the reforms of her right-wing predecessor, while backing traditional Labour concerns such as social security, high taxes, the industrialization of nature, and feminism. By the late 1990s, Norway had paid off its foreign debt and had started accumulating a sovereign wealth fund. Since the 1990s, a divisive question in politics has been how much of the income from petroleum production the government should spend, and how much it should save. From 2005 Jens Stotenberg (Norvegian Labour party) is a Prime Minister, re-elected 2009.

In 2011 Norway suffered a pair of devastating attacks conducted by Anders Behring Breivik which struck the government quarter in Oslo and a summer camp of the Labour party's youth movement at Utøya island, resulting in 77 deaths and 96 wounded.

Denmark:

1993 Poul Schulter was succeeded by the Social Democrat Poul Nyrup Rasmussen. A new centre-right coalition headed by Anders Fogh Rasmussen came to power in 2001 promising tighter immigration controls. In 2009 Anders Fogh Rasmussen resigned as Prime Minister of Denmark to become the Secretary General of NATO. A third successive centre-right leader, Lars Løkke Rasmussen, was prime minister from 2009 to 2011. His government, dependent as it was on the right-wing populist People's Party to push through legislation, witnessed immigration and integration emerge as major issues of public debate. Social Democrat Helle Thorning-Schmidt, Denmark's first female prime minister, took office in 2011, ending a decade of centre-right rule.

The Maastricht treaty involving further European integration was rejected by the Danish people in 1992. It was only accepted after a second referendum in 1993 and the addition of certain opt-out concessions for Denmark. The Danes rejected the euro as the national currency in a referendum in September 2000. Greenland was awarded self-determination in 2009.

Despite its modest size, since World War II, Denmark has participated in generally UN sanctioned, and often NATO led, military and humanitarian operations, including: Cyprus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Korea, Egypt, Croatia, Kosovo, Ethiopia, Afghanistan, Iraq, Somalia and recently Libya.

Sweden:

 Sweden joined the European Union in 1995 and signed the Lisbon Treaty in 2007.

A bursting real estate bubble caused by inadequate controls on lending combined with an international recession and a policy switch from anti-unemployment policies to anti-inflationary policies resulted in a fiscal crisis in the early 1990s. Sweden's GDP declined by around 5%. In 1992, a run on the currency caused the central bank to briefly increase interest rates to 500%.

The response of the government was to cut spending and institute a multitude of reforms to improve Sweden's competitiveness, among them reducing the welfare state and privatizing public services and goods. Much of the political establishment promoted EU membership, and the Swedish referendum passed with 52% in favour of joining the EU on 13 November 1994. Sweden joined the European Union on 1 January 1995.

Sweden remains non-aligned militarily, although it participates in some joint military exercises with NATO and some other countries, in addition to extensive cooperation with other European countries in the area of defence technology and defence industry. Among others, Swedish companies export weapons that were used by the American military in Iraq. Sweden also has a long history of participating in international military operations, including most recently, Afghanistan, where Swedish troops are under NATO command, and in EU sponsored peacekeeping operations in Kosovo, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Cyprus. Sweden held the chair of the European Union from 1 July to 31 December 2009. Current Prime Minister Fredrik Reinfeldt (Moderate Party) was appointed on October 6, 2006, re-elected 2010.

Finland:

The Presidents were Martti Ahtisaari (1994–2000) and Tarja Halonen (2000–2012). The current president is Sauli Niinistö; he took office on 1 March 2012.

Miscalculated macroeconomic decisions, a banking crisis, the collapse of its largest single trading partner (the Soviet Union) and a global economic downturn caused a deep recession in Finland in the early 1990s. The depression bottomed out in 1993, and Finland saw steady economic growth for more than ten years.

Recent history

 Finland introduced the currency of the Eurozone, the euro, in 2002.

Like other Nordic countries, Finland has liberalized its economy since the late 1980s. Financial and product market regulation was loosened. Some state enterprises have been privatized and there have been some modest tax cuts. Finland joined the European Union in 1995, and the Eurozone in 1999.

The population is aging with the birth rate at 10.42 births per 1,000 population, or a fertility rate of 1.8. With a median age of 41.6 years, Finland is one of the oldest countries; half of voters are estimated to be over 50 years old. Like most European countries, without further reforms or much higher immigration, Finland is expected to struggle with demographics, even though macroeconomic projections are healthier than in most other developed countries.

The Finnish markka was replaced by the euro in 2002. As a preparation for this date, the minting of the new euro coins started as early as 1999; this is why the first euro coins from Finland have the year 1999 on them, instead of 2002 like some of the other countries of the Eurozone. Three different designs (one for €2 coin, one for €1 coin and one for the other six coins) were selected for the Finnish coins. In 2007, in order to adopt the new common map like the rest of the Eurozone countries, Finland changed the common side of its coins.

In the whole, in this time the most of the Nordic countries became the EU members.

6.German-speaking countries.

Germany:

6th period (1990-98)

Chancellorship of Helmut Kohl in a reunited Germany

Five new states

On October 3, 1990, the German Democratic Republic was dissolved, five states were recreated (Brandenburg, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, Saxony, Saxony-Anhalt and Thuringia) and the new states became part of the Federal Republic of Germany, an event known as the German Reunification.

Elections for new state parliaments were held in the five states on October 14, and the Christian Democratic Union of Germany became the largest party in all states except Brandenburg, where the Social Democratic Party of Germany became the largest party.

The reunified Berlin became the capital of Germany on October 3, although the government continued to have its seat in Bonn until 1999. The first elections for the city parliament after reunification were held on December 2.

Kohl's fourth term

The first federal election after reunification, the German federal election, 1990, took place on December 2 in that year. The CDU became the largest party with 43,8%, followed by the SPD (33,5%) and the Free Democratic Party of Germany (11%).

On June 20, 1991, the Bundestag decided that the parliament and parts of the government and central administration would be relocated from Bonn to the capital, Berlin. At this time, the term "Berlin Republic" (alluding to the Cold War-era "Bonn Republic" and the interwar "Weimar Republic") emerged.

Roman Herzog, a former Judge at the Federal Constitutional Court of Germany, was elected President of Germany in 1994, succeeding Richard von Weizsäcker.

Kohl's fifth term

Following the German federal election, 1994, Helmut Kohl was reelected as Chancellor for his fifth and last term.

In the 1990s attacks were still being committed under the name "RAF". The last action took place in 1993 and the group announced it was giving up its activities in 1998. Evidence that the groups had been infiltrated by German Intelligence undercover agents has since emerged, partly through the insistence of the son of one of their prominent victims, the State Counsel Buback.

In the whole, this period was a time of euphory and good economy, despite the necessary help to the East Germany.

7th period (1998-2005) : Chancellorship of Gerhard Schröder

First term

The ruling liberal-conservative coalition government, consisting of the CDU/CSU and the FDP, lost the German federal election, 1998, and Gerhard Schröder was elected as Chancellor, the head of a coalition government consisting of his own SPD party and the The Greens. Joschka Fischer, a leading Green politician, became Vice Chancellor and Foreign Minister.

Shortly after the formation of the government, Minister of Finance Oskar Lafontaine, a former SPD chairman and rival of Schröder, resigned from the cabinet. He was succeeded as Minister of Finance by Hans Eichel.

In 1998, it became known that the CDU/CSU had received anonymous funding. Helmut Kohl subsequently resigned as honorary party chairman, and in 2000, Wolfgang Schäuble resigned as party chairman. Angela Merkel, the Secretary General of the CDU since 1998, emerged as a leading figure in the party and was elected chairwoman in 2000.

In 1999, Johannes Rau was elected President of Germany. Rau had tried to be elected President for several years.

A large tax reform was implemented in 2000. After 2003, the federal government implemented a number of reforms in social and health policy, known as Agenda 2010. The Schröder government also stressed ecological issues and promoted the reduction greenhouse gas.

Germany took part in the NATO war against Yugoslavia in 1999, when German forces saw combat for the first time since World War II. Chancellor Schröder supported the war on terror following the September 11 attacks against the United States, and Germany sent forces to Afghanistan. Germany also sent forces to Kosovo and other parts of the world.

In 1999, Germany partially adopted the Euro, which completely replaced the Deutsche Mark as the currency of Germany in 2002.

Several German cities, notably Dresden and Magdeburg, experienced severe flooding during the 2002 European floods.

Second term

In 2002, Edmund Stoiber was the candidate for Chancellor for the CDU/CSU, the first time a CSU politician was chancellor candidate since the candidacy of Franz Josef Strauss in 1980. Both CDU/CSU and the SPD polled 38,5% in the German federal election, 2002. Since the Greens became larger than the liberals, Gerhard Schröder's government was reelected.

Germany and France vehemently opposed the 2003 Iraq War, leading the administration of George W. Bush to label Germany and France as the Old Europe, as opposed to the countries (mainly former east bloc countries) that supported the war. However, Germany supported the United States militarily in other parts of the world, notably in the Horn of Africa and Kuwait.

The early 2000s saw increased unemployment and an aging population. The government instituted further reforms to meet these challenges, known as the Hartz reforms. However, as the Bundesrat of Germany had a CDU/CSU majority, the government of Gerhard Schröder was dependant on support from the conservatives in order to pass legislation.

 President Horst Köhler

On May 23, 2004, Horst Köhler, the former head of the International Monetary Fund and a CDU politician, was elected President of Germany. Köhler, who was previously relatively unknown in Germany, quickly became one of the country's most popular politicians.

After a bitter defeat for the SPD in state elections in the state of North Rhine-Westphalia (22 May 2005), Chancellor Schröder asked the German Bundestag (lower house of parliament) for a vote of no-confidence. Schröder argued that it had become increasingly difficult to push for the necessary socio-economic reforms because of the opposition majority in the upper house of the parliament, the Bundesrat, as well as the tensions within his own party. After losing this vote, as intended, on July 1, Chancellor Schröder was able to ask President Horst Köhler to call new federal elections. On 21 July 2005 the President agreed to Chancellor's request and dissolved the parliament, scheduling early parliamentary elections for 18 September.

In the whole, it was a difficult time for the united Germany, comparable to perestroika in the Soviet Union. Euro was introduced, the capital moved to Berlin. It closes the 3rd stage of the German history (1945-2005).

 4th stage (2005-

1st period (2005-

Chancellorship of Angela Merkel

First term

The German federal election, 2005 resulted in a stalemate for both major parties, SPD and CDU/CSU, as they won almost the same number of seats, but not enough to form a majority without the support of several smaller parties. This was resolved on November 11, 2005, when both parties agreed to form a grand coalition led by Angela Merkel who became the first female Chancellor of Germany.

Second term

In the German federal election, 2009, the CDU/CSU and the FDP won a majority and Angela Merkel could form a coalition with the liberals, the Cabinet Merkel II. Guido Westerwelle became the new Vice Chancellor. The Social Democrats did especially poorly in the election.

Christian Wulff (born 1959, CDU) was a Federal President 2010- 2012. Joachim Gauck (born 1940, Independent) was elected a Federal President 18 March 2012.

It was a difficult time for German economy because of the law rates. Germany sank from the 2nd to the 4th place in the world according to the BNP.

Switzerland:

The first female president was Ruth Dreifuss in 1999.

 In 2003, by granting the Swiss People's Party a second seat in the governing cabinet, the Parliament altered the coalition which had dominated Swiss politics since 1959.

On 18 April 1999 the Swiss population and the cantons voted in favour of a completely revised federal constitution.

In 2002 Switzerland became a full member of the United Nations, leaving the Vatican City as the last widely recognised state without full UN membership. Switzerland is a founding member of the EFTA, but is not a member of the European Economic Area. An application for membership in the European Union was sent in May 1992, but not advanced since the EEA was rejected in December 1992 when Switzerland was the only country to launch a referendum on the EEA. There have since been several referenda on the EU issue; due to a mixed reaction from the population the membership application has been frozen. Nonetheless, Swiss law is gradually being adjusted to conform with that of the EU, and the government has signed a number of bilateral agreements with the European Union. Switzerland, together with Liechtenstein, has been completely surrounded by the EU since Austria's membership in 1995. On 5 June 2005, Swiss voters agreed by a 55% majority to join the Schengen treaty, a result that was regarded by EU commentators as a sign of support by Switzerland, a country that is traditionally perceived as independent and reluctant to enter supranational bodies.

Austria:

Following a referendum in 1994, at which consent reached a majority of two thirds, the country became a member of the European Union on 1 January 1995.

Austria joined the European Union in 1995 and signed the Lisbon Treaty in 2007.

The major parties SPÖ and ÖVP have contrary opinions about the future status of Austria's military non-alignment:[citation needed] While the SPÖ in public supports a neutral role, the ÖVP argues for stronger integration into the EU's security policy; even a future NATO membership is not ruled out by some ÖVP politicians/ In reality, Austria is taking part in the EU's Common Foreign and Security Policy, participates in the so-called Petersburg Agenda (including peace keeping and peace creating tasks) and has become member of NATO's "Partnership for Peace"; the constitution has been amended accordingly. Since Liechtenstein joined the Schengen Area in 2011, none of Austria's neighbouring countries performs border controls towards it anymore.

Voting for the federal president and for the Parliament used to be compulsory in Austria, but this was abolished in steps from 1982 to 2004.

Since 1995, the European Court of Justice may overrule Austrian decisions in all matters defined in laws of the European Union. Austria also implements the decisions of the European Court of Human Rights, since the European Convention on Human Rights is part of the Austrian constitution.

Recent developments

After general elections held in October 2006, the Social Democrats emerged as the largest party, whereas the People's Party lost about 8% in votes. Political realities prohibited any of the two major parties from forming a coalition with smaller parties. In January 2007 the People's Party and Social Democrats formed a grand coalition with the social democrat Alfred Gusenbauer as Chancellor. This coalition broke up in June 2008. Elections in September 2008 further weakened both major parties (Social Democrats and People's Party) but together they still held more than 50% of the votes with the Social Democrats holding the majority. They formed a coalition with Werner Faymann from the Social Democrats as Chancellor. The positions of the Freedom Party and the deceased Jörg Haider's new party Alliance for the Future of Austria, both parties on the political right, were strengthened during the election.

In the whole, the German-speaking countries came closer to the EU. FRG and GDR united, Austria became a member of the EU. Both countries introduced the Euro. Even Switzerland began cooperate with the EU more actively.

6.Italy and neighbor countries.

Italy:

In the early 1990s, Italy faced significant challenges, as voters – disenchanted with political paralysis, massive public debt and the extensive corruption system (known as Tangentopoli) uncovered by the 'Clean Hands' investigation – demanded radical reforms. The scandals involved all major parties, but especially those in the government coalition: the Christian Democrats, who ruled for almost 50 years, underwent a severe crisis and eventually disbanded, splitting up into several factions. The Communists reorganized as a social-democratic force. During the 1990s and the 2000s (decade), center-right (dominated by media magnate Silvio Berlusconi) and center-left coalitions alternatively governed the country, which entered a prolonged period of economic stagnation.

The country signed the Lisbon Treaty in 2007.

The President of the Italian Republic (Presidente della Repubblica), currently Giorgio Napolitano since 2006, is Italy's head of state.

The Italy's four major political parties are the People of Freedom, the Democratic Party, the Northern League and the Union of Christian and Centre Democrats (UDC). During the 2008 general elections these four parties won 589 out of 630 seats available in the Chamber of Deputies and 293 out of 315 seats available in the Senate of the Republic. Most of the remaining seats were won by minor parties that only contest election in one part of Italy, like the South Tyrolean People's Party and the Movement for Autonomies. However, during the last 3 years, a so-called "Third Pole" emerged, merging the Christian Democrats of UDC with some dissident MPs coming from Mr. Berlusconi's cabinet. After the resignation of Silvio Berlusconi on 12 November 2011, economist Mario Monti has been appointed as a technocratic Prime Minister.

A general election took place on 24–25 February 2013 to determine the 630 members of the Italian Chamber of Deputies and the 315 elective members of the Senate for the 17th Parliament of the Italian Republic. According to results, the centre-left alliance Italy Common Good led by the Democratic Party (Pier Luigi Bersani) obtained a clear majority of seats in the Chamber of Deputies, thanks to a majority bonus that has effectively trebled the number of seats assigned to the winning force, while in the popular vote it narrowly defeated the centre-right alliance of former Prime Minister Silvio Berlusconi. Close behind, the new anti-establishment Five Star Movement of comedian Beppe Grillo became the third force, clearly ahead of the centrist coalition of outgoing Prime Minister Mario Monti. In the Senate, no political group or party won an outright majority, resulting effectively in a hung parliament.

Vatican:

Roman Popes:

265. Benedict XVI (Joseph Alois Ratzinger), 2005 – 28 February 2013.

Oldest to become pope since Pope Clement XII in 1730. Elevated the Tridentine Mass to a more prominent position. First pope to willingly renounce the Papacy since Pope Celestine V in 1294.

Malta:

On 16 July 1990, Malta, through its foreign minister, Guido de Marco, applied to join the European Union. After tough negotiations, a referendum was held on 8 March 2003, which resulted in a favourable vote. General Elections held on 12 April 2003, gave a clear mandate to the Prime Minister, Eddie Fenech Adami, to sign the Treaty of accession to the European Union on 16 April 2003 in Athens, Greece. Malta joined the European Union on 1 May 2004. Following the European Council of 21–22 June 2007, Malta joined the Eurozone on 1 January 2008.

In the whole, Italy remained a big European power, Malta became a member of the European Union.

7.Central European countries.

Poland:

Polish Presidents: Lech Wąłęsa, 1990-1995, Aleksander Kwaśniewski, 1995-2005,

Lech Kaczyński, 2005-10 April 2010.

Poland joined NATO in 1999 and since 2004 has been a member of the European Union.

A shock therapy programme, initiated by Leszek Balcerowicz in the early 1990s enabled the country to transform its socialist-style planned economy into a market economy. As with all other post-communist countries, Poland suffered temporary slumps in social and economic standards, but it became the first post-communist country to reach its pre-1989 GDP levels, which it achieved by 1995 largely thanks to its booming economy.

Most visibly, there were numerous improvements in human rights, such as the freedom of speech, civil liberties (1st class) and political rights (1st class), according to Freedom House. In 1991, Poland became a member of the Visegrád Group and joined the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) alliance in 1999 along with the Czech Republic and Hungary. Poles then voted to join the European Union in a referendum in June 2003, with Poland becoming a full member on 1 May 2004. Subsequently Poland joined the Schengen Area in 2007, as a result of which, the country's borders with other member states of the European Union have been dismantled, allowing for full freedom of movement within most of the EU. In contrast to this, the section of Poland's eastern border now comprising the external EU border with Belarus, Russia and Ukraine, has become increasingly well protected, and has led in part to the coining of the phrase 'Fortress Europe', in reference to the seeming 'impossibility' of gaining entry to the EU for citizens of the former Soviet Union.

On April 10, 2010, the President of the Republic of Poland, Lech Kaczyński, along with 89 other high-ranking Polish officials died in a plane crash near Smolensk, Russia. The president's party were on their way to attend an annual service of commemoration for the victims of the Katyń massacre when the tragedy took place. Bronislaw Komorowski became his successor.

Czechoslovakia:

In 1992, because of growing nationalist tensions, Czechoslovakia was peacefully dissolved by parliament. On 1 January 1993 it formally separated into two completely independent countries: the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic. Both countries went through economic reforms and privatisations, with the intention of creating a capitalist economy. This process was largely successful; in 2006 the Czech Republic was recognised by the World Bank as a "developed country", and in 2009 the Human Development Index ranked it as a nation of "Very High Human Development".

From 1991, the Czech Republic, originally as part of Czechoslovakia and since 1993 in its own right, has been a member of the Visegrád Group and from 1995, the OECD. The Czech Republic joined NATO on 12 March 1999 and the European Union on 1 May 2004. It held the Presidency of the European Union for the first half of 2009.

The first President of the Czech Republic was Václav Havel (1993-2003). The current President is Václav Klaus, in office since 2 February 2003. Miloš Zeman will replace him on 8 March 2013.

Slovakia:

In July 1992 Slovakia, led by Prime Minister Vladimír Mečiar, declared itself a sovereign state, meaning that its laws took precedence over those of the federal government. Throughout the autumn of 1992, Mečiar and Czech Prime Minister Václav Klaus negotiated the details for disbanding the federation. In November the federal parliament voted to dissolve the country officially on 31 December 1992.

The Slovak Republic and the Czech Republic went their separate ways after 1 January 1993, an event sometimes called the Velvet Divorce. Slovakia has remained a close partner with the Czech Republic. Both countries cooperate with Hungary and Poland in the Visegrád Group. Slovakia became a member of NATO on 29 March 2004 and of the European Union on 1 May 2004. On 1 January 2009, Slovakia adopted the Euro as its national currency. Robert Fico is a current Prime Minister of Slovakia.

Hungary:

The majorities in the decisive bodies of the state party agreed to give up their monopoly on power, paving the way for free elections in March 1990. The party's name was changed from the Hungarian Socialist Workers' Party to simply the Hungarian Socialist Party (MSZP] and a new program advocating social democracy and a free-market economy was adopted. This was not enough to shake off the stigma of four decades of autocratic rule, however, and the 1990 election was won by the centre-right Hungarian Democratic Forum (MDF), which advocated a gradual transition towards capitalism. The liberal Alliance of Free Democrats (SZDSZ), which had called for much faster change, came second and the Socialist Party trailed far behind. As Gorbachev looked on, Hungary changed political systems with scarcely a murmur and the last Soviet troops left Hungary in June 1991. In coalition with two smaller parties, the MDF provided Hungary with sound government during its hard transition to a full market economy.

The economic changes of the early 1990s resulted in declining living standards for most people in Hungary. In 1991 most state subsidies were removed, leading to a severe recession exacerbated by the fiscal austerity necessary to reduce inflation and stimulate investment. This made life difficult for many Hungarians, and in the May 1994 elections the Hungarian Socialist Party led by former Communists won an absolute majority in parliament.

All three main political parties advocated economic liberalisation and closer ties with the West. In 1998, the European Union began negotiations with Hungary on full membership. In a 2003 national referendum, 85% voted in favor of Hungary joining the European Union, which followed on 1 May 2004.

The 2006 protests in Hungary were a series of anti-government protests triggered by the release of Hungarian Prime Minister Ferenc Gyurcsány's private speech in which he confessed that his Hungarian Socialist Party had lied to win the 2006 election, and had done nothing worth mentioning in the previous four years of governing. Most of the events took place in Budapest and other major cities between 17 September and 23 October. It was the first sustained protest in Hungary since 1989.

From 2007, when increased inflation caused by tax increases decreased the standard of living, a complete restructuring of the state-administration, energy sector, relation towards private economy, health sector and welfare supports took place. Members of affected professional unions describe the measures as lacking discussion and uncompromising. The country joined Schengen Area at the end of 2007.

In 2008, the coalition broke up over the disagreement whether the insurance side of the health sector should be state owned and therefore decided in policies the by state or by private companies. This conflict was followed by a successful public referendum, initiated by Fidesz, calling for the elimination of university tuition fees, direct payments at visitations of doctors by insured patients, and daily fees at hospital by insured patients. This effectively stopped the restructuring of health care, while it remained completely publicly owned.

The 2008 financial crisis caused further budgetary constraints. After Gyurcsány's resignation, the Socialists put forward a "government of experts" under Gordon Bajnai in March 2009, which would only make essential macroeconomic decisions.

In the first round of the 2010 spring general elections, the center-right Fidesz received 2.704 million votes, i.e. the votes of 33.69% of the 8.026 million eligible voters or 52.73% of the 5.128 million actual voters for party lists, which resulted in more than two-thirds of the seats in Parliament. Fidesz took 263 seats, the Socialists 59, radical, far right nationalist Jobbik 47, and the newly founded Lehet Más a Politika (Politics Can Be Different) 16, with one seat taken by an independent. In the autumn municipal elections, Fidesz achieved a majority in almost all local and mayoral elections, winning the traditional strongholds of the liberal parties.

Slovenia:

In September 1989, numerous constitutional amendments were passed to introduce parliamentary democracy to Slovenia. The same year Action North united both the opposition and democratized communist establishment in Slovenia as the first defense action against attacks by Milošević's supporters, leading to Slovenian independence. On 7 March 1990, the Slovenian Assembly changed the official name of the state to the "Republic of Slovenia". In April 1990, the first democratic election in Slovenia took place, and the united opposition movement DEMOS led by Jože Pučnik emerged victorious.

These revolutionary events in Slovenia pre-dated by almost one year the Revolutions of 1989 in Eastern Europe, but went largely unnoticed by international observers. On 23 December 1990, more than 88% of the electorate voted for a sovereign and independent Slovenia. On 25 June 1991, Slovenia became independent through the passage of appropriate legal documents. On 27 June in the early morning, the Yugoslav People's Army dispatched its forces to prevent further measures for the establishment of a new country, which led to the Ten-Day War. On 7 July, the Brijuni Agreement was signed, implementing a truce and a three-month halt of the enforcement of Slovenia's independence. In the end of month, the last soldiers of the Yugoslav Army left Slovenia.

In December 1991, a new constitution was adopted, followed in 1992 by the laws on denationalisation and privatization. The members of the European Union recognised Slovenia as an independent state on 15 January 1992, and the United Nations accepted it as a member on 22 May 1992.

Slovenia joined the European Union on 1 May 2004. Slovenia has one Commissioner in the European Commission, and seven Slovene parliamentarians were elected to the European Parliament at elections on 13 June 2004. In 2004 Slovenia also joined NATO. Slovenia subsequently succeeded in meeting the Maastricht criteria and joined the Eurozone (the first transition country to do so) on 1 January 2007. It was the first post-Communist country to hold the Presidency of the Council of the European Union, for the first six months of 2008. On 21 July 2010, it became a member of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Croatia:

In January 1990, the Communist Party fragmented along national lines, with the Croatian faction demanding a looser federation. In the same year, the first multi-party elections were held in Croatia, with Franjo Tuđman's win raising nationalist tensions further. Serbs in Croatia left Sabor and declared the autonomy of areas that would soon become the unrecognized Republic of Serbian Krajina, intent on achieving independence from Croatia. As tensions rose, Croatia declared independence in June 1991, however the declaration came into effect on 8 October 1991.

The tensions escalated into the Croatian War of Independence when the Yugoslav National Army and various Serb paramilitaries attacked Croatia. By the end of 1991, a high intensity war fought along a wide front reduced Croatia to control of about two-thirds of its territory. On 15 January 1992, Croatia gained diplomatic recognition by the European Economic Community members, and subsequently the United Nations. The war effectively ended in 1995 with a decisive victory by Croatia in August 1995. The remaining occupied areas were restored to Croatia pursuant to the Erdut Agreement of November 1995, with the process concluded in January 1998.

Since the end of the war

Croatia became a member of the Council of Europe in 1996. 1996 and 1997 were a period of post-war recovery and improving economic conditions. However, in 1998 and 1999 Croatia experienced an economic depression, causing the unemployment of thousands of citizens.

The remaining part of former "Krajina", areas adjacent to FR Yugoslavia, negotiated a peaceful reintegration process with the Croatian Government. The so-called Erdut Agreement made the area a temporary protectorate of the UN Transitional Administration for Eastern Slavonia, Baranja and Western Sirmium. The area was formally re-integrated into Croatia by 1998.

Franjo Tuđman's government started to lose popularity as it was criticized (among other things) for its involvement in suspicious privatization deals of the early 1990s as well as a partial international isolation. The country experienced a mild recession in 1998 and 1999.

Tuđman died in 1999 and in the early 2000 parliamentary elections, the nationalist Croatian Democratic Union (HDZ) government was replaced by a center-left coalition under the Social Democratic Party of Croatia, with Ivica Račan as prime minister. At the same time, presidential elections were held which were won by a moderate, Stjepan Mesić. The new Račan government amended the Constitution, changing the political system from a presidential system to a parliamentary system, transferring most executive presidential powers from the president onto the institutions of the Parliament and the Prime Minister.

The new government also started several large building projects, including state-sponsored housing, more rebuilding efforts to enable refugee return, and the building of the A1 highway. The country achieved notable economic growth during these years, while the unemployment rate would continue to rise until 2001 when it finally started falling. Croatia became a World Trade Organization (WTO) member in 2000 and started the Accession of Croatia to the European Union in 2003.

In late 2003, new parliamentary elections were held and a reformed HDZ party won under leadership of Ivo Sanader, who became prime minister. European accession was delayed by controversies over the extradition of army generals to the ICTY, including the runaway Ante Gotovina. Sanader was reelected in the closely contested 2007 parliamentary election. Other complications continued to stall the EU negotiating process, most notably Slovenia's blockade of Croatia's EU accession in 2008–2009.

In June 2009, Sanader abruptly resigned his post, and named Jadranka Kosor in his place. Kosor introduced austerity measures to counter the economic crisis and launched an anti-corruption campaign aimed at public officials. In late 2009, Kosor signed an agreement with Borut Pahor, the premier of Slovenia, that allowed the EU accession to proceed.

In the Croatian presidential election, 2009-2010, Ivo Josipović, the candidate of the SDP won a landslide victory. Sanader tried to come back into HDZ in 2010, but was then ejected, and USKOK soon had him arrested on several corruption charges. As of 2012, his trial is ongoing.

In 2011, the accession agreement was concluded, giving Croatia the all-clear to join, with a projected accession date of 1 July 2013.

The Croatian parliamentary election, 2011 was held on 4 December 2011, and the Kukuriku coalition won.

In the whole, the Central European countries became democratic in this time, the most of them entered the EU and the NATO.

1. Baltic countries.

Estonia:

In 1989, during the "Singing Revolution", in a landmark demonstration for more independence, called the Baltic Way, a human chain of more than two million people was formed, stretching through Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia. All three nations had similar experiences of occupation and similar aspirations for regaining independence. The Estonian Sovereignty Declaration was issued on 16 November 1988 and formal independence declared on 20 August 1991, reconstituting the pre-1940 state, during the Soviet military coup attempt in Moscow. The Soviet Union recognised the independence of Estonia on 6 September 1991. The first country to diplomatically recognize Estonia's reclaimed independence was Iceland. The last Russian troops left on 31 August 1994.

The 2004 enlargement of the European Union was the largest single expansion of the European Union (EU), both in terms of territory and population, however not in terms of gross domestic product (wealth). Estonia was among a group of ten countries incorporated into the EU on 1 May 2004. The Treaty of Accession 2003 was signed on 16 April 2003.

On 1 January 2011 Estonia adopted the Euro. The enlargement of the eurozone, although limited, was hailed as a good sign in a period of global financial crisis and instability of the euro. To cope with crisis and financial targets, the government cut down public service salaries; the only opposition, in the absence of organised unions, came from Estonian teachers, whose salary cuts were therefore limited.

Being a member of the eurozone, NATO and the EU, Estonia is the most integrated in Western European organizations of all Nordic states

The Presidents of Estonia were:

Lennart Georg Meri (1992- 2001); Arnold Rüütel (2001- 2006); Toomas Hendrik Ilves (2006, re-elected 2011).

Latvia:

In 1989, the Supreme Soviet of the USSR adopted a resolution on the "Occupation of the Baltic states", in which it declared that the occupation was "not in accordance with law," and not the "will of the Soviet people". Pro-independence Popular Front of Latvia candidates gained a two-thirds majority in the Supreme Council in the March 1990 democratic elections. On May 4, 1990, the Supreme Soviet of the Latvian SSR adopted the Declaration On the Restoration of Independence of the Republic of Latvia and the Latvian SSR was renamed Republic of Latvia.

However, the central power in Moscow continued to regard Latvia as Soviet republic in 1990–1991 . In January 1991, Soviet political and military forces tried unsuccessfully to overthrow the Republic of Latvia authorities by occupying the central publishing house in Riga and establishing a Committee of National Salvation to usurp governmental functions. During the transitional period Moscow maintained many central Soviet state authorities in Latvia.

In spite of this, 73% of all Latvian residents confirmed their strong support for independence on March 3, 1991, in a nonbinding advisory referendum. A large number of ethnic Russians also voted for the proposition. The Popular Front of Latvia had advocated that all permanent residents be eligible for Latvian citizenship. However, universal citizenship for all permanent residents was not adopted subsequently; a majority of ethnical non-Latvians did not receive Latvian citizenship even though they had voted in support of independence. Many of them were born in Latvia, but still became non-citizens. Until 2011 more than half of non-citizens have gone through the process of naturalization exams and received Latvian citizenship. Still today there are 290,660 non-citizens of Latvia, which represent 14.1% of population. Those people have no citizenship of any country and cannot vote in Latvia. The Republic of Latvia declared the end of the transitional period and restored full independence on August 21, 1991 in the aftermath of the failed Soviet coup attempt.

The Saeima, Latvia's parliament, was again elected in 1993, and Russia completed its military withdrawal in 1994, with troops remaining at the Skrunda-1 station until 1998. The major goals of Latvia in the 1990s, to join NATO and the European Union, were achieved in 2004. became a member of the European Union in 2004 and signed the Lisbon Treaty in 2007.

Language and citizenship laws have been opposed by many Russophones. (Citizenship was not automatically extended to former Soviet citizens who settled during the Soviet occupation or to their subsequent offspring. This resulted in a situation where people who have lived and worked in Latvia for over 50 years were nonetheless unable to vote, which meant that Russian voice was largely excluded from the parliament and the government. Children born to non-nationals after the reestablishment of independence are automatically entitled to citizenship.) Approximately 72% of Latvian citizens are Latvian, while 20% are Russian; less than 1% of non-citizens are Latvian, while 71% are Russian. The government denationalised private property confiscated by the Soviet rule, returning it or compensating the owners for it, and privatised most state-owned industries, reintroducing the prewar currency. Albeit having experienced a difficult transition to a liberal economy and its re-orientation toward Western Europe, its economy had one of the highest growth rates until the 2008–2010 Latvian financial crisis.

After economic stagnation in the early 1990s, Latvia posted Europe-leading GDP growth figures during 1998–2006. In the global financial crisis of 2008–2010 Latvia was the hardest hit of the European Union member states, with a GDP decline of 26.54% in that period. Commentators noted signs of stabilisation in the Latvian economy by 2010, and the state of the economy continued to improve, as Latvia once again became one of the fastest growing economies of the EU in 2011. The United Nations lists Latvia as a country with a "Very High" Human Development Index (HDI).

The head of parliament was Anatolijs Gorbunovs (1990-1993, Communist Party of Latvia).

Presidents:

Guntis Ulmanis (1993-1999, Latvian Farmers' Union); Vaira Vīķe-Freiberga (1999-2007, Independent);

Valdis Zatlers (2007- 2011 Independent); Andris Bērziņš (from 2011, Union of Greens and Farmers).

Lithuania:

After a landslide victory in elections to the Supreme Soviet, members of Sąjūdis proclaimed Lithuania's independence on 11 March 1990, becoming the first Soviet republic to do so. The Soviet Union attempted to suppress the secession by imposing an economic blockade. Soviet troops attacked the Vilnius TV Tower, killing 14 Lithuanian civilians and wounding 600 others on the night of 13 January 1991 (January Events). On 31 July 1991 Soviet paramilitaries killed seven Lithuanian border guards on the Belarusian border in what became known as the Medininkai Massacre.

On 4 February 1991, Iceland became the first country to recognise Lithuanian independence. After the Soviet August Coup, independent Lithuania received wide official recognition and joined the United Nations on 17 September 1991. The last Soviet troops left Lithuania on 31 August 1993 – even earlier than they departed from East Germany. Lithuania, seeking closer ties with the West, applied for NATO membership in 1994. After a transition from a planned economy to a free market one, Lithuania became a full member of NATO and the European Union in the spring of 2004 and a member of the Schengen Agreement on 21 December 2007.

Prior to the global financial crisis of 2007–2010 and now in its aftermath, Lithuania has one of the fastest growing economies in the European Union. Lithuania is a member of NATO, the Council of Europe, and the European Union. Lithuania is also a full member of the Schengen Agreement. The United Nations Human Development Index lists Lithuania as a "Very High Human Development" country. Lithuania will hold the Presidency of the Council of the European Union in the second half of 2013.

Vytautas Landsbergis (1990-1992) - Chairman of the Supreme Council.

Lithuanian Presidents:

Algirdas Brazauskas (1992-1998) was the first post-Soviet President.

Valdas Adamkus (1998- 2003); Rolandas Paksas (February 2003-6 April 2004) was impeached and removed from office. Artūras Paulauskas (6 April 2004-12 July 2004) As leader of Seimas, temporarily performed the duties of the President until the next election. Valdas Adamkus (2004-2009); Dalia Grybauskaitė

(from 12 July 2009) is the first woman President of Lithuania.

In the whole, three Baltic countries regained their independence, becoming the democratic states, entered the EU and the NATO. In Estonia and Latvia there were problems with Russian-speaking national minorities.

In the whole, Europe in this time made more advance to the building of the European Union, which was extended 1995 and 2004.

Questions:

1. Describe the history of Iberian countries in this time.
2. What was new in the history of British isles in this period?
3. Describe the history of Benelux states in this time.
4. What is new in the French history in this period?
5. Describe the history of Nordic countries in this time.
6. What were the common features in the history of German-speaking countries in this time?
7. Describe the history of Central European states.
8. What are the main events in the history of the Baltic countries?

59. East Europe from 1990 till now.

a) Russia and CIS countries from 1990 onwards.

5th macrostage – period of Russian Federation (1990 – till modern time).

It looks like the achievements of the previous 74 years are liquidated and the pre-revolutionary and Kerensky's Russia is returned (old Russian flag and court of arms, old city names, offices like Duma and governor etc. are returned), the Soviet past is rejected. But really there is no such a process, because one cannot in fact liquidate the Soviet past (also because the new leaders grew and made carrier in the Soviet time). Russia is restored not in the frontiers of 1914, but in fact in the frontiers of the middle of the 17th century (besides St.-Petersburg and region and Kaliningrad region, which is now separated from the "main" Russia). On the territory of the former USSR 20 states appear (besides 12, which enter CIS, and three Baltic states, there are five unrecognized, which origin from the former autonomies - Dnestr Moldavian Republic, Abkhazia, Mountainous Karabagh, Southern Ossetia and Chechnya). The restoration of capitalism takes place, remarkably enough not in its modern European "social market" variant (some synthesis of socialism and capitalism), but in the kind of the "wild" capitalism of the XIXth century, in the corresponding way the concepts of liberalism in economy become popular (which is not a surprize because of the stadial retardation of the Russia from France for 120 years). Despite it, Europe is again an example for Russia, new Europized (and Americanized) government is formed, which robs the pauperizing people (like in the Peter I' epoch). Gradually new, bourgeois intelligentsia (so called "middle class") is formed, which is meretricious and principless; meanwhile the majority of representatives of old Soviet intelligentsia exist in bad conditions. Hardly the multi-party system is formed, Communists (who become national-communists more and more) are still strong. Being now in the opposition, they try to play part of the protectors of interests of the people, who was damaged by reforms.

24 (1) period – 1990-1995.

Period begins from the election of the Supreme Soviet of the Russian Federation, whose head becomes Boris Yeltsin, and proclamation of the 'Declaration about the sovreignty of RF" (June the 12th, 1990), in a year Yeltsin becomes a first President of Russia, wiinig elections against the Communist candidate Polozkov. 1990-91 fight between Russian and Union's power takes place, which ends with the victory of the former. The the fight between executive (led by Yeltsin) and legislative (led by his vice-President Rutskoy and parliament's head Khasbulatov) power in Russia itself begins, which ends with the shooting of parliament in October 1993 (approved by the USA) and adoption of the new Russian constitution in December 1993 (in a referendum), which gave the almost unlimited power to the President. Victor Chernomyrdin becomes his Prime Minister. In the first years Yeltsin is a charismatic figure. Yeltsin typologically corresponds to Tiers, his enemies - to the Paris commune, his regime - to the Third republic. The subscribing of the federative treaty of 1993 was an important measure, which prevented Russia from the disintegration. Economic measures of the Gaidar's government copied the "shock therapy" in the East European countries, but caused only the bigger pauperisation of people, only big businessmen, belonging to the former "shadow economy" won from them. As results, 70% of state property were privatized. Inflation grew in 100-150 times in 1992. Promissed "people's capitalism" did not come, voucherisation in fact failed (vouchers were bought by the same dealers). As it happens usually in the first period of macrostage (cp. 1917-27), the criminality grew a lot, epoch of dealers and scrupelless people came. Despite it, Yeltsin is supported with the church, which is led by Patriarch Alexiy II (from 1990). 1992-93 people are taken with the panic, some sects (expecially "White brotherhood") and preachers heat the feeling of the soon "end of the world". Economics was also negatively influenced with the introduction of national currencies by the countries of former USSR, breaking of old connections causes the industry of CIS countries on the brink of perishing. Democracy becomes a kind of autoritarian regime. In the first Duma (1993) mostly the adherents of Yeltsin and Zhirinovsky (nationalist LDPR) are elected; Communists, who were prohibited again for a some time, had relatively few voices, the liberal opposition is represented by the former Vice-Prime Minister Yavlinsky. Yeltsin follows the Western (first of all US American) policy, does not respects the national interests of Russia, liquidating the military equipment, pulling back the Russian forces from the Europe. The West gives billion doll. credits to Russia, which come to the politicians and oligarchs. Russia has more and more debts before the West and IMF. The same situation is in the others states of the CIS, where former party nomenclature is at power. In the Ukraine former second secretary of the CPSU Leonid Kravchuk becomes a President, the referendum for independence is held December 1st, 1991. Crimea becomes autonomus and proclaims an independence. In Belorussia Shushkevich is a head of the Supreme Soviet, the independence is proclaimed in August 1991. These two policians conclude a shameful Belovezhskoe treaty with Yeltsin December the 8th, 1991, dissolving the Soviet Union. In Moldavia nationalist Mircea Snegur comes to power, Eastern (Dnestr) region becomes in fact independent under President Smirnov. In Georgia nationalist Zviad Gamsahurdia comes to power 1992 as the first President, 1993 former first secretary of the CPSU and foreign minister of the USSR Shevarnadze becomes a second President. Military conflicts in Dnestr region, Abhazia and South Ossetia follow. In Armenia Levon Ter-Petrossian becomes a first President 1991. The changes in the Ukraine and Belorussia are only 1994, when the politicians with more clear course come to power: in Belorussia - Lukashenko, whose aim is a Union with Russia (concluded 1996), fight against the corruption, and preserving of the Soviet system in the whole (but without the leading part of the Communist party), in the Ukraine - Leonid Kuchma, analogic to Yeltsin, who sees the Ukraine as a puffer between Russia and the West. In its development the Ukraine has a retardation of about three years in comparison to Russia (so, the constitution is accepted 1996), meanwhile Belorussia goes on the way of some Central Asian countries, where the President's dictatorship is established and every opposition is suppressed.

2 (30) period -1995-1999.

 In the 2nd Duma in 1995 the parties' system changes: Communist take a lot of sits (26%), but the "party of power" is "Our house Russia", headed by Prime Minister Chernomyrdin, which represents the oil and gas complex, liberal and right opposition are represented by Yavlinsky and Zhirinovsky. 1994-96 the first war in Chechnia takes place. Events in Chechnia look like the Caucasian war, which took place 150 years ago, and threaten to be prolongated for years or even decennals. West uses this war for anti-Russian propaganda in the spirit of the "cold war". At the President's elections of 1996 Yeltsin win over the Communist candidate theoretician Zyuganov (who corresponds more to Plekhanov, than to Lenin) with big difficulties, third place was occupied by General Lebed, who made cease of fire in Chechnia. Now Yeltsin corresponds to Mac Mahon in the Third Republic, famous with his Monarchist sympaties. Fiasco of Gorbachov, who had only 0,5% voices. Social-democratic ideas, represented by him, are not supported by the electors, and he himself becomes a "parable in people", which sees in him the main guilty in the disintegration of the USSR (for which, certainly, Yeltsin and leaders of other republics are guilty). In Checnhia three-years cease of fire is held. 1997 foreign political situation worsens. NATO (which was not dissolved in the end of 80-s because of the treasorous Gorbachov's policy) moves to the east, to the CIS border, including nor three former members of the Warsaw treaty - Poland, Czechia and Hungary. Russia can answer only with the close relations to Belorussia, which remains the only one ally of Russia in the Europe. Russia and Belorussia abolish the Belovezhskie agreements. The only positive foreign political result of the Yeltsin's rule is closement between Russia and China. 1997 the money reform takes place (inflation roubles of 1992 are changed 10,000:1). 1998 the often change of Prime Ministers and "August crisis" - default of banks takes place. As result Russia ceases to get credits in the former amount (soon the economic growth begins, apparently, the economics according to the receipts of the IMF brought only problems to Russia), and Gorbachov's former minister Primakov becomes a Prime Minister.

 The international situation becomes sharper even more in April 1999 because of the NATO bombing's of Yugoslavia (under the pretext of defense of Kosovo Albanians). Russia gives over its last ally on Balkans - Miloshevich, who tried to preserve the unity of Yugoslavia, which consisted in this time only from two republics (instead of six in the Tito's epoch), now peninsula becomes fully the zone of Western influence. The fight between Yeltsin and opposition sharpens: it accuses him in the genocide, because in the time of his rule Russia has lost four mill. people, like in the WWI, but gets a bit fewer voices than it needs for the impeachment), in August Putin, former head of FSB, becomes a new Prime Minister. Belorussia and Russia come closer, the creation of the United State is announced, but it exists more on the paper. The Second Chechenian War begins, even more cruel than the first one. At the election into the Third Duma the pro-Putin "Unity" has victory, Communist have a bit fewer voices, in the parliament also governor of Moscow Luzhkov's "Fatherland all Russia", Union of Right Forces of Nemtsov and parties of Yavlinsky and Zhirinovsky are represented.The Ukrainian President's elections of 1999 correspond to the Russia's elections of 1996: the Kuchma's rival is Communist Simonenko, analogical to Zyuganov, at the third place - Socialist Moroz (In the Ukraine, in difference to Russia, Social-democratic ideas have more supporters).In Moldova 1997 Petru Luchinshi becomes a second President. In the eve of the New Year of 2000 Yeltsin, who was in fact already a long time unable to rule, refuses from the power to the favor of Putin (coming to power of the new President in the New Year of 2000 was strangely enough prognozed by me in a fantastic story of 1990, but I could not guess the name). Thanks to the mighty support of the mass media Putin convincebly wins over Zyuganov at the elections of March the 26th, 2000. The Yeltsin's epoch is over.

 It is a period of breaking, a hard epoch for the most people and culture. From the USA into Russia Solzhenitsin returns (died in 2008), who became now more a symbol. His receipts "how to rebuild Russia" look like the utopy in the modern situation, his political significance is not big (otherwise he could become a Russian Havel). From the writers Pelevin is outstanding. It is an epoch of the Western and imitating the Western art, outstanding regisseurs of the Soviet epoch (like Ryazanov, Mikhalkov) make much worse films than earlier in the new conditions. The same degradation is in the realm of music (like in the West). Science vegetates. The number of printed editions (books and newspapers), which became very big in the last years of the Gorbachov's epoch, decreased in many degrees. The scholarly literature is now available only to the city inhabitants. Province is deserted, but the amount of Moscow inhabitants increases, where under governor Luzhkov the pompous edifices and monuments in the style of Alexander III epoch are built (e.g. the Zhukov epoch). The same situation is in the Ukraine, where Kiev (now Kyjiv) develops first of all, and the country loses more than 3.5 mill. of inhabitants (in perecentage more than Russia). Even in the state Ukrainian language now fewer books are published than in the time of the "Soviet empire". Some other situation is in Belorussia, where the economic decrease is not so remarkable, and the culture people confront very much the same problems, like in the Soviet time. In Armenia Robert Kocharian is elected a president 1998.

3 (31) period (2000-2004).

New President Putin corresponds to President of the Third Republic Jules Grévy (1879-1887), he has to fleet between the oligarches and the people. His Prime Minister is Mikhail Kasyanov. The most odious oligarchs (Berezovsky, Gusinky) have to leave the country (it corresponds typologically to the fate of Trotsky, Zinovyev etc. in the former macroperiod). The Second Chechenian war continues, it appears like the federal troops can control Chechnia, but the terroristic act in October 2002 in Moscow shows that there is still a long way to the peace in Chechnia. The fight with oligarchs continued also in 2003, the most rich of them - Khodorkovsky - was arrested, in the elections into the 4th Duma the representatives of the right Union of Right Forces and Liberal ("Yabloko"), i.e. the reformers, who began the reforms in the 90-s (Gaidar, Chubais, Yavlinsky), did not pass. It corresponds typologically to the liquidation of the "right bias" in VKP (b) in 1930. From CPRF the bloc of Sergey Glazyev "Motherland" is splitten, which also comes into the Duma, but pro-Putin "United Russia" (union of "Unity" and "Fatherland All Russia") wins, Zhirinovsky remains approximately with the former result. Crisis is over, positive tendencies not only in Russia, but also in other countries of the CIS are seen, in the economy the growth is again (at the level of the 12th five-year plan and even more, but mostly because of the export of energy carriers). The foreign debt is reduced, till 2004 the full re-paying of the debts of former USSR is planned. Some attributes of the Soviet epoch are returned, the Soviet anthem, abolished under Yeltsin, returns with the new words, wriiten by Mikhalkov. The cooperation between the CIS countries renovates: 2000 the Euro-Asiatic economic community is formed from Russia and the countries of the CEntral Asia (the same countries and Armenia make a military union), the Ukraine creates the alternative group of GUUAM (with support and financing from the USA). The Euro-Asian community gradually becomes stronger (with the time the liquidation of customary barriers and transition to the one currency), GUUAM comes to crisis, Uzbekistan leaves it in fact; the Ukraine, Moldova and Armenia become observers at EuroAsiatic EC, February 23, 2003, the "Union of the four" (Russia, Ukraine, Belorussia and Kazakhstan) is created, September 19 in Yalta the treaty about the creation of the United Economic Space between these four countries is undersigned. But soon the participation of the Ukraine in this community was in fact abolished because of the provocation events around the island Tuzla in Azov Sea, which almost brought Russia and the Ukraine to the brink of the military conflict. 2001 the united energy system of the former USSR is restored, which incorporated 14 countries (besides Armenia). China also takes part in the Euro-Asian integration, 2001 Russia conclludes the treaty about friendship and cooperation with China for 30 years, in the same year the Shanghai organisation of cooperation is made with the participation of Russia, China and four Central Asian countries (besides Turkmenistan).

 The international situation grows worse. The West tried also to overthrow the Belorussian President Lukashenko, promoting the opposition and even planning the military invasion into Belorussia for its support.But Lukashenko wins decisively in the elections of September 2001 against the trade union leader Goncharik. The United State remains declarative a lot, the creation of the union organs and introduction of one currency is planned, but postponed (in Belorussia itself the money reform is made 2000, later than in the Ukraine and Russia), the personal relations of both presidents leave to wish better. At the President's elections in Moldova 2001 the Communist Voronin wins - the first case of this kind at the CIS territory. Despite it, the relations with Russia do not become better, 2003 Moldova declares about its intention to leave CIS and enter the EU. Dnestr republic remains in fact independent, despite withdrawal of Russian forces. The attempt to create federation of Moldova and Dnestr republic did not fail in the November of this year because of the Moldavian side, supported from Brussels. The attempt to maken Russia language a second one was not successful. It testifies that the Moldavian Communists prefer the way of "European integration" of the colleagues from the Baltic countries. 2002 the extension of the NATO ans the EU takes place, they get 10 new members, among the, former Baltic republics (the definite entrance took part in the spring of 2004). Under the pretext of the anti-terrorist fight the USA soldiers stationed in the Central Asia and even in Georgia, meanwhile Russia leaves former Soviet bases in Vietnam, Cuba and Georgia, where in 2003 the pro-American Mikhail Saakashvili wins ("the rose revolution") over Shevarnadze.

4 (32) period (2004-2008).

Period corresponds to the 4th period to the Soviet history after the WWII (1945-56). In the Presidents' elections of March 14, 2004 Putin is re-elected, he has got more than 70% of votes. He has even no strong rivals (Zhirinovsky and Zyuganov do not take part in the elections, the Communist candidate Kharitonov had only 14% of voices, young economist Glazyev - 4% of voices). Russian elections of 2004 look a bit like Belorussian of 2001, but the relations between allies Putin and Lukashenko are not so good as one could expect, Russia even stop to export gas into Belorussia for some time. Party "United Russia" has all means of power. The new Prime Minister is Fradkov. After the victory in Chechnya and the celebration of the 60 years of victory of the USSR over the Nazi Germany (darkened with the death of Chechnya's President Islam Kadyrov May the 9th, 2005) the Great Russian chauvinism increases.Meanwhile in the Ukraine the supported by the USA "orange revolutioners" win, who strive for the liquidation of Russian language and culture there and try to bring the Ukraine into the NATO.Despite the Ukraine does not enter the NATO, it takes part in the 2nd Iraq War at the side of the USA. Despite pro-USAmerican position of the President, the friendship treaty between Russia and the Ukraine is prolongated for ten years 2007. Soon, like in each revolution, the fight between the revolutionaries themselves begins (President Victor Yushchenko versus Prime Minister Yulia Timoshenko). The often (almost annual) parliamentary elections split and disturb the country, the national currency (hryvnia) sinks for 50% in relation to the US dollar and Euro and to 25% to the Russian rouble. With the begin of the World financial crisis, corresponding to the Great Depression of 1929-1933, the inconsistence of the economic policy of Russian and Ukrainian governments becomes evident, meanwhile the Belorussian economy remains in the whole not affected with the crisis. The elections of 2006 testify the Lukashenko's victory over the opposition. 2007 Yeltsin dies.

5 (33) period (2008-2012)

Period corresponds to the 5th period of the Soviet hitory (1956-68).

Elections of the year 2008 end with the victory of the candidate of "United Russia" Armenian Medvedev (Bagratyan), but Putin remains a Prime Minister and a leader of the party.The third President of Russia corresponds to the French President of the Third Republic Carnot (elected 1887). "Patriotic" forces were defeated at the elections into Duma of 2007 and were substituted with the moderate left party "Justeous Russia" under the leader of speaker of Council of Federation Mironov."Five days" war with Georgia (August 2008), corresponding to the invasion of the USSR into Hungary 1956, ended with the recognizing of independence of Abkhazia and South Ossetia by Russia and some other states (like Nicaragua). But Saakashvili is re-elected in Georgia. Georgia leaves CIS. In Armenia 2008 Serzh Sargsian becomes a third President. In the politics the return to the ideas of early epoch - democracy and human rights (in the same way Khrushchov returns to the ideals of Lenin's Communism).Despite it, "United Russia", which has the constitutional majority (2/3 places in the parliament),makes changes in the constitution, according to which the time of the President service was increased to six, of the parliament - to five years. In the economy the oligarchic capital continues to dominate. Russia and other CIS countries enter the WTO. The population continues to decrease (till 142.9 mill. in 2010, which is 2.3 mln.(1,6%) less than in 2002. After the death of Alexiy II (2008) Cyril (Gundyayev) becomes a new Patriarch of the Russian Orthodox Сhurch 2009. In the Ukraine after the gas war with Russia the "orange" regime of Yushchenko lost popularity and was defeated at the President's elections of 2010. His former Prime Minister Yanukovich, who succeded him, represents a moderate nationalist direction and improves the relations with Russia. The Ukrainian population was reduced till ca. 46 mln.Lukashenko has a decisive victory at the Belorussia's elections of 2011. In the end of the year the economic agreement between Belorussia, Russia and Kazakhstan about the united economic space is subscribed (the Ukraine does not participate in it). In Moldova 2009 Communists lose power, but the new President could not be elected. Elections into the 6th State Duma (December the 4th, 2011), elected for five years, do not change anything in the table of political forces.Into the Duma, where now a 7% barrier is introduced,the same four parties are represented, "Yabloko" and the "Right course" remain behind the board, as well as the party "Patriots of Russia", splliten from the CPRF. "United Russia" lost support of the part of population, having now only the absolute majority of sits (238 from 450).

6 (34) period (2012-

Period, corresponding to the 6th period of the Soviet history (1968-78), begins from elections of March the 4th, 2012, where five candidates took part (Putin, Zhirinovsky, Zyuganov, Mironov and Prokhorov), and V.V.Putin has got a convincing victory (63,6%).He was elected for six years. Inauguration of the President took place May the 7th, 2012. Medvedev became a Prime Minister.

In the whole, Russia preserved its independence, losing a lot of territory and a half of population (in comparison with the USSR), but remaining a big and nuclear power. 2012 it was at the 9th place in the world accorning to the BNP. But the historical Russian state, 1150 years of which were celebrated 2012, remained divided into three states.

In Moldova 2012 independent Nikolae Timofti elected a third President.

b) Balkan countries in 1990-2012.

Yugoslavia:

After attempts by Serbia to impose its authority on the rest of the country, Slovenia and Croatia declared their independence on June 25, 1991. Fighting immediately broke out as the federal army (controlled largely by Serbs) moved into Slovenia. A fragile peace was negotiated by a European Community (EC) delegation, but fighting soon resumed. By the end of July, 1991, however, all federal forces had left Slovenia, although fighting continued throughout the summer between Croatian forces and the federally backed Serbs from Serb areas of Croatia. In Sept., 1991, Macedonia declared its independence, and the citizens of Bosnia and Herzegovina voted for independence that October. Kiro Gligorov became the first democratically elected president of the Socialist Republic of Macedonia on 27 January 1991. On completing his second term as head of the independent state Gligorov was succeeded by Boris Trajkovski in 1999. Following Trajkovski's death in 2004, he was succeeded by Branko Crvenkovski. Gjorge Ivanov won the 2009 presidential election and took office on 12 May 2009. Since December 2005 Macedonia has also been a candidate for joining the European Union and has applied for NATO membership.

In Jan., 1992, with Serbs holding 30% of Croatia, a cease-fire was negotiated in that republic, and the United Nations sent in a peacekeeping force. In that same month the EC recognized Croatia and Slovenia as independent states, and in April the EC and the United States recognized Bosnia and Herzegovina's sovereignty. The Serbs, with about 30% of the population, seized 65% of the latter republic's territory and proclaimed the Serbian Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Croats, with about 20% of the population, seized about half the remainder of the land and proclaimed the Croatian Community of Herceg-Bosna. The poorly armed Muslims, who comprised more than 40% of the population, held the rest of the republic's territory, including the capital. In a campaign of "ethnic cleansing" carried out mostly by the Serbs, thousands of Muslims were killed, and many more fled Bosnia or were placed in Serb detention camps.

In May, 1992, the United Nations imposed economic sanctions on Serbia and Montenegro and called for an immediate cease-fire in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Macedonia was widely recognized the following year (though Greece withheld recognition and imposed an embargo until after an agreement was reached with Macedonia in 1995). Although Serbia and Montenegro declared a new Yugoslavian federation, the EC announced in June, 1992, that the new government could not claim the international rights and duties of the former Yugoslavia, because those rights and obligations had devolved onto the different republics. This opinion was affirmed by the United Nations in Sept., 1992.

The United Nations also imposed a naval blockade on Yugoslavia, which along with the sanctions resulted in severe economic hardship, including hyperinflation for a time. After Serbia reduced its support for the Bosnian Serbs, the United Nations eased sanctions against Yugoslavia. In late 1995 Yugoslavia (in the person of President Milošević of Serbia) participated in the talks in Dayton, Ohio, that led to a peace accord among Bosnia, Croatia, and Serbia (Yugoslavia). Milošević became president of all Yugoslavia in 1997.

Tensions increased in Kosovo in 1997 and 1998, as a period of nonviolent civil disobedience against Serbian rule gave way to the rise of a guerrilla army. In Mar., 1999, following mounting repression of ethnic Albanians and the breakdown of negotiations between separatists and the Serbs, NATO began bombing military targets throughout Yugoslavia, and thousands of ethnic Albanians were forcibly deported from Kosovo by Yugoslav troops. In June, Milošević agreed to withdraw from Kosovo, and NATO peacekeepers entered the region. Demonstrations in the latter half of 1999 against Milošević failed to force his resignation. Meanwhile, Montenegro sought increased autonomy within the federation and began making moves toward that goal.

In July, 2000, the national constitution was amended to permit the president to hold office for two terms and to institute direct presidential elections; the changes were designed to permit Milošević to remain in power beyond a single term and reduce Montenegrin influence in the federal government. When elections were held in September, however, Milošević was defeated by Vojislav Koštunica, who was supported by a coalition of 18 opposition parties (Democratic Opposition of Serbia; DOS). The election commission initially refused to certify Koštunica as the outright victor, but Milošević conceded after a general strike was called, demonstrators took over the federal parliament building, and Russia recognized Koštunica.

A coalition consisting of the DOS and Montenegrin Socialists formed a national government, and in early Serbian elections (Dec., 2000) the DOS won control of the Serbian parliament. Koštunica replaced several top military officers—a move designed in part to placate Montenegro—but he initially refused to hand Milošević over to the international war crimes court in the Hague. In early 2001 Milošević and some of his associates in the former government were arrested on various charges. The former president was turned over to the war crimes tribunal by the Serbian government in June, prompting the Montenegrin Socialists to resign from the federal coalition. Relations between Koštunica and Serbian prime minister Zoran Djindjić became strained, with the former concerned more about preserving the federation with Montenegro and the latter about winning Western foreign aid and reforming the economy.

The NATO troops in Kosovo promote the Albanian separatism in the neighbor Macedonia and 2001 enter it as the "peace keepers". But second Kosovo in Macedonia was not achieved, besides it, the Ukraine gave some help to Macedonia.

Serbia and Montenegro (2003–6)

By 2002 Montenegro's drive for greater autonomy had developed into a push for independence, and a referendum on the issue was planned. In Mar., 2002, however, Serbian and Montenegrin representatives, under pressure from the European Union and other nations opposed to immediate Montenegrin independence (fearing that it could lead to further disintegration and fighting), agreed on a restructured federal union, and a constitutional charter for a "state community" was adopted by the Serbian, Montenegrin, and federal parliaments by Feb., 2003. Following the federal parliament's approval of the charter, the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia was reconstituted as Serbia and Montenegro.

Most governmental power shifted to the two republics, as the union became a weak federal republic. Although the two republics shared a common foreign and defense policy, they had separate currencies and customs regulations, and after three years either republic could vote to leave the union. Svetozar Marović, of Montenegro, was elected president of the union in March, and was its only president.

Despite the increased autonomy accorded Montenegro, Montenegrin leaders generally avoided any moves that would be supportive of the union and continued to call for Montenegro's independence. In May, 2006, after three years had passed, Montenegrin voters approved independence in a referendum, and Montenegro declared its independence on June 3. The government of Serbia and Montenegro then dissolved itself and, on June 5, Serbia declared itself a sovereign state and the political heir to the union. Serbia's proclamation brought to an end the prolonged dissolution of Yugoslavia into the constituent republics that had been established by Tito following World War II.

Romania:

Romania faced a difficult transition from Communism to democracy and a market economy. A body called the National Salvation Front took control and in May 1990 it won elections. It won further elections in 1992. However in 1996 Emil Constantinescu, head of the right-wing Democratic Convention of Romania won the presidential elections. He was replaced by Ion Iliescu in 2000.

Romania joined NATO in 2004. Romania also joined the EU in 2007. Romania suffered badly in the recession of 2009. However Romania recovered in 2011. Today the population of Romania is 21.8 million.

Republic of Bulgaria:

By the time the impact of Mikhail Gorbachev's reform program in the Soviet Union was felt in Bulgaria in the late 1980s, the Communists, like their leader, had grown too feeble to resist the demand for change for long. In November 1989 demonstrations on ecological issues were staged in Sofia and these soon broadened into a general campaign for political reform. The Communists reacted by deposing the decrepit Zhivkov and replacing him by Petar Mladenov, but this gained them only a short respite. In February 1990 the Party voluntarily gave up its claim on power monopoly and in June 1990 the first free elections since 1931 were held, won by the Communist Party, ridden of its hardliner wing and renamed the Bulgarian Socialist Party. In July 1991 a new Constitution was adopted, in which the system of government was fixed as parliamentary republic with a directly elected President and a Prime Minister accountable to the legislature. Like the other post-Communist regimes in Eastern Europe, Bulgaria found the transition to capitalism more painful than expected. The anti-Communist Union of Democratic Forces (UDF) took office and between 1992 and 1994 carried through the privatisation of land and industry through the issue of shares in government enterprises to all citizens, but these were accompanied by massive unemployment as uncompetitive industries failed and the backward state of Bulgaria's industry and infrastructure were revealed. The Socialists portrayed themselves as the defender of the poor against the excesses of the free market.

The negative reaction against economic reform allowed Zhan Videnov of the BSP to take office in 1995. By 1996 the BSP government was also in difficulties and in the presidential elections of that year the UDF's Petar Stoyanov was elected. In 1997 the BSP government collapsed and the UDF came to power. Unemployment, however, remained high and the electorate became increasingly dissatisfied with both parties.

On 17 June 2001, Simeon II, the son of Tsar Boris III and himself the former Head of state (as Tsar of Bulgaria from 1943 to 1946), won a narrow victory in elections. The Tsar's party — National Movement Simeon II ("NMSII") — won 120 of the 240 seats in Parliament. Simeon's popularity declined quickly during his four-year rule as Prime Minister and the BSP won the elections in 2005, but could not form a single-party government and had to seek a coalition. In the parliamentary elections in July 2009, Boyko Borisov's right-centrist party GERB won nearly 40% of the votes.

Since 1989 Bulgaria has held multi-party elections and privatized its economy, but economic difficulties and a tide of corruption have led over 800,000 Bulgarians, including many qualified professionals, to emigrate in a "brain drain". The reform package introduced in 1997 restored positive economic growth, but led to rising social inequality. The political and economic system after 1989 virtually failed to improve both the living standards and create economic growth. According to a 2009 Pew Global Attitudes Project survey, 76% of Bulgarians said they were dissatisfied with the system of democracy, 63% thought that free markets did not make people better off and only 11% of Bulgarians agreed that ordinary people had benefited from the changes in 1989. Furthermore, the average quality of life and economic performance actually remained lower than in the times of communism well into the early 2000s (decade).

Bulgaria became a member of NATO in 2004 and of the European Union in 2007 and is generally accepted as having good freedom of speech and human rights record. President Georgi Parvanov met with Russian president Vladimir Putin 2008.

 In 2010 it was ranked 32nd (between Greece and Lithuania) out of 181 countries in the Globalization Index.

Greece:

Greece adopted the euro as its currency in 2001.

Economic crisis of 2009-2012

From late 2009, fears of a sovereign debt crisis developed among investors concerning Greece's ability to meet its debt obligations due to strong increase in government debt levels. This led to a crisis of confidence, indicated by a widening of bond yield spreads and risk insurance on credit default swaps compared to other countries, most importantly Germany. Downgrading of Greek government debt to junk bonds created alarm in financial markets. On 2 May 2010, the Eurozone countries and the International Monetary Fund agreed on a €110 billion loan for Greece, conditional on the implementation of harsh austerity measures.

In October 2011, Eurozone leaders also agreed on a proposal to write off 50% of Greek debt owed to private creditors, increasing the EFSF to about €1 trillion and requiring European banks to achieve 9% capitalization to reduce the risk of contagion to other countries. These austerity measures have proved extremely unpopular with the Greek public, precipitating demonstrations and civil unrest.

Cyprus:

In 2002 UN Secretary General Kofi Annan started a new round of negotiations for the unification of the island. In 2004 after long negotiations between both sides a plan for unification of the island emerged. The resulting plan was supported by UN, EU and the US. The nationalists in both sides campaigned for the rejection of the plan but Turkish side accepted the plan while Greek side rejected it.

After Cyprus became a member of the European Union in 2004, it adopted the Euro as its currency on January 1, 2008, replacing the previously used Cypriot Pound; whilst the illegally occupied areas continued to use the Turkish Lira and on January 1, 2008 the New Turkish Lira.

In the whole, all Balkan countries went upon the road of democracy. Most of them entered the European Union.

Questions:

1. Describe the history of Russia in this period.

2. What was the difference between the history of Russian federation, Belorussia and the Ukraine in this period?

3. What new countries appeared in the Balkans in this time?

60. Jews from 1990 till now.

History of Israel from 1992 till now.

1992–1996: Rabin II; Peres II

In the 1992 elections, the Labour Party, led by Yitzhak Rabin, won a significant victory (44 seats) promising to pursue peace while promoting Rabin as a "tough general" and pledging not to deal with the PLO in any way. The pro-peace Zionist party Meretz won 12 seats, and the Arab and communist parties a further 5 meaning that parties supporting a peace treaty had a full (albeit small) majority in the Knesset. Later that year, the Israeli electoral system was changed to allow for direct election of the prime minister. It was hoped this would reduce the power of small parties (mainly the religious parties) to extract concessions in return for coalition agreements. The new system had the opposite effect; voters could split their vote for prime minister from their (interest based) party vote, and as a result larger parties won fewer votes and smaller parties becoming more attractive to voters. It thus increased the power of the smaller parties. By the 2006 election the system was abandoned.

On July 25, 1993, Israel carried out a week-long military operation in Lebanon to attack Hezbollah positions. On September 13, 1993, Israel and the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) signed the Oslo Accords (a Declaration of Principles) on the South Lawn of the White House. The principles established objectives relating to a transfer of authority from Israel to an interim Palestinian Authority, as a prelude to a final treaty establishing a Palestinian state, in exchange for mutual recognition. The DOP established May 1999 as the date by which a permanent status agreement for the West Bank and Gaza Strip would take effect. In February 1994, a follower of the Kach movement killed 29 Palestinian Arabs at the Cave of the Patriarchs in Hebron. Kach had been barred from participation in the 1992 elections (on the grounds that the movement was racist). It was subsequently made illegal. Israel and the PLO signed the Gaza–Jericho Agreement in May 1994, and the Agreement on Preparatory Transfer of Powers and Responsibilities in August, which began the process of transferring authority from Israel to the Palestinians. On July 25, 1994, Jordan and Israel signed the Washington Declaration, which formally ended the state of war that had existed between them since 1948 and on October 26 the Israel–Jordan Treaty of Peace, witnessed by U.S. President Bill Clinton.

Prime Minister Yitzhak Rabin and PLO Chairman Yasser Arafat signed the Israeli–Palestinian Interim Agreement on the West Bank and the Gaza Strip on September 28, 1995, in Washington. The agreement was witnessed by President Bill Clinton on behalf of the United States and by Russia, Egypt, Norway and the European Union, and incorporates and supersedes the previous agreements, marking the conclusion of the first stage of negotiations between Israel and the PLO. The agreement allowed the PLO leadership to relocate to the occupied territories and granted autonomy to the Palestinians with talks to follow regarding final status. In return the Palestinians promised to abstain from use of terror and changed the Palestinian National Covenant, which had called for the expulsion of all Jews who migrated after 1917 and the elimination of Israel.

The agreement was opposed by Hamas and other Palestinian factions, which launched suicide bomber attacks at Israel. Rabin had a barrier constructed around Gaza to prevent attacks. The growing separation between Israel and the "Palestinian Territories" led to a labour shortage in Israel, mainly in the construction industry. Israeli firms began importing labourers from the Philippines, Thailand, China and Romania; some of these labourers stayed on without visas. In addition, a growing number of Africans began illegally migrating to Israel. On November 4, 1995, a far-right-wing religious Zionist opponent of the Oslo Accords, assassinated Prime Minister Yitzhak Rabin. In February 1996 Rabin's successor, Shimon Peres, called early elections. In April 1996, Israel launched an operation in southern Lebanon as a result of Hezbollah's Katyusha rocket attacks on Israeli population centers along the border.

1996–1999: Netanyahu I

The May 1996 elections were the first featuring direct election of the prime minister and resulted in a narrow election victory for Likud leader Binyamin Netanyahu. A spate of suicide bombings reinforced the Likud position for security. Hamas claimed responsibility for most of the bombings. Despite his stated differences with the Oslo Accords, Prime Minister Netanyahu continued their implementation, but his prime ministership saw a marked slow-down in the Peace Process. Netanyahu also pledged to gradually reduce U.S. aid to Israel.

In September 1996, a Palestinian riot broke out against the creation of an exit in the Western Wall tunnel. Over the subsequent few weeks, around 80 people were killed as a result. In January 1997 Netanyahu signed the Hebron Protocol with the Palestinian Authority, resulting in the redeployment of Israeli forces in Hebron and the turnover of civilian authority in much of the area to the Palestinian Authority.

1999–2001: Barak

In the election of July 1999, Ehud Barak of the Labour Party became Prime Minister. His party was the largest in the Knesset with 26 seats. In September 1999 the Supreme Court of Israel ruled that the use of torture in interrogation of Palestinian prisoners was illegal. On March 21, 2000, Pope John Paul II arrived in Israel for a historic visit.

On May 25, 2000, Israel unilaterally withdrew its remaining forces from the "security zone" in southern Lebanon. Several thousand members of the South Lebanon Army (and their families) left with the Israelis. The UN Secretary-General concludedthat, as of June 16, 2000, Israel had withdrawn its forces from Lebanon in accordance with UN Security Council Resolution 425. Lebanon claims that Israel continues to occupy Lebanese territory called "Sheba'a Farms" (however this area was governed by Syria until 1967 when Israel took control).The Sheba'a Farms provided Hezbollah with a ruse to maintain warfare with Israel. The Lebanese government, in contravention of the UN resolution, did not assert sovereignty in the area, which came under the control of Hezbollah. In the Fall of 2000, talks were held at Camp David to reach a final agreement on the Israel/Palestine conflict. Ehud Barak offered to meet most of the Palestinian teams requests for territory and political concessions, including Arab parts of east Jerusalem; however, Arafat abandoned the talks without making a counterproposal.

In July 2000, Aryeh Deri was sentenced to 3 years in prison for bribe taking. Deri is regarded as the mastermind behind the rise of Shas and was a government minister at the age of 24. Political manipulation meant the investigation had lasted for years. Deri subsequently sued a Police Officer who alleged that he was linked to the traffic-accident death of a witness, who was run over in New York by a driver who had once been in the employ of an associate of Deri.

On September 28, 2000, Israeli opposition leader Ariel Sharon visited the Al-Aqsa compound, or Temple Mount, the following day the Palestinians launched the al-Aqsa Intifada. David Samuels and Khaled Abu Toameh have stated that the uprising was planned much earlier. In October 2000, Palestinians destroyed Joseph's Tomb, a Jewish shrine in Nablus.

The Arrow missile, a missile designed to destroy ballistic missiles, including Scud missiles, was first deployed by Israel. In 2001, with the Peace Process increasingly in disarray, Ehud Barak called a special election for Prime Minister. Barak hoped a victory would give him renewed authority in negotiations with the Palestinians. Instead opposition leader Ariel Sharon was elected PM. After this election, the system of directly electing the Premier was abandoned.

2001–2006: Sharon

The failure of the peace process, increased Palestinian terror and occasional attacks by Hezbollah from Lebanon, led much of the Israeli public and political leadership to lose confidence in the Palestinian Authority as a peace partner. Most felt that many Palestinians viewed the peace treaty with Israel as a temporary measure only.[citation needed] Many Israelis were thus anxious to disengage from the Palestinians. In response to a wave of suicide bomb attacks, culminating in the "Passover massacre" (see List of Israeli civilian casualties in the Second Intifada), in 2002 Israel launched Operation Defensive Shield, and Sharon began construction of a barrier around the West Bank.

Thousands of Jews from Latin America began arriving in Israel due to economic crises in their countries of origin. In January 2003 separate elections were held for the Knesset. Likud won the most seats (27). An anti-religion party, Shinui, led by media pundit Tommy Lapid, won 15 seats on a secularist platform, making it the third largest party (ahead of orthodox Shas). Internal fighting led to Shinui's demise at the next election. In 2004, the Black Hebrews were granted permanent residency in Israel. The group had begun migrating to Israel 25 years earlier from the United States, but had not been recognized as Jews by the state and hence not granted citizenship under Israel's Law of Return. They had settled in Israel without official status. From 2004 onwards, they received citizen's rights.

In May 2004, Israel launched Operation Rainbow in southern Gaza to create a safer environment for the IDF soldiers along the Philadelphi Route. On September 30, 2004, Israel carried out Operation Days of Penitence in northern Gaza to destroy the launching sites of Palestinian rockets which were used to attack Israeli towns. In 2005, all Jewish settlers were evacuated from Gaza (some forcibly) and their homes demolished. Disengagement from the Gaza Strip was completed on September 12, 2005. Military disengagement from the northern West Bank was completed ten days later. Following the withdrawal, the Israeli town of Sderot and other Israeli communities near Gaza became subject to constant shelling and mortar bomb attacks from Gaza. In 2005 Sharon left the Likud and formed a new party called Kadima, which accepted that the peace process would lead to creation of a Palestinian state. He was joined by many leading figures from both Likud and Labour.

Hamas won the Palestinian legislative election, 2006, the first and only genuinely free Palestinian elections. Hamas' leaders rejected all agreements signed with Israel, refused to recognize Israel's right to exist, refused to abandon terror, and occasionally claimed the Holocaust was a Jewish conspiracy. The withdrawal and Hamas victory left the status of Gaza unclear, Israel claimed it was no longer an occupying power but continued to control air and sea access to Gaza although it did not exercise sovereignty on the ground. Egypt insisted that it was still occupied and refused to open border crossings with Gaza, although it was free to do so. On April 14, 2006, after Ariel Sharon was incapacitated by a severe haemorrhagic stroke, Ehud Olmert became Prime Minister.

2006–2009: Olmert

Ehud Olmert was elected Prime Minister after his party, Kadima, won the most seats (29) in the Israeli legislative election, 2006. In 2005 Mahmoud Ahmadinejad was officially elected president of Iran; since then, Iranian policy towards Israel has grown more confrontational. Israeli analysts believe Ahmadinejad has worked to undermine the peace process with arms supplies and aid to Hezbullah in South Lebanon and Hamas in Gaza, and is developing nuclear weapons, possibly for use against Israel. Iranian support for Hezbollah and its nuclear arms program are in contravention of UN Security Council resolutions 1559 and 1747. Iran also encourages Holocaust denial. Following the Israeli withdrawal from Lebanon, Hezbollah had mounted periodic attacks on Israel, which did not lead to Israeli retaliation. Similarly, the withdrawal from Gaza led to incessant shelling of towns around the Gaza area with only minimal Israeli response. The failure to react led to criticism from the Israeli right and undermined the government.

On March 14, 2006, Israel carried out an operation in the Palestinian Authority prison of Jericho in order to capture Ahmad Sa'adat and several Palestinian Arab prisoners located there who assassinated Israeli politician Rehavam Ze'evi in 2001. The operation was conducted as a result of the expressed intentions of the newly elected Hamas government to release these prisoners. On June 25, 2006, a Hamas force crossed the border from Gaza and attacked a tank, capturing wounded Israeli soldier Gilad Shalit, sparking clashes in Gaza.

On July 12, Hezbollah attacked Israel from Lebanon, shelled Israeli towns and attacked a border patrol, taking two dead or badly wounded Israeli soldiers. These incidents led Israel to initiate the Second Lebanon War, which lasted through August 2006. Israeli forces entered some villages in Southern Lebanon, while the air force attacked targets all across the country. Israel only made limited ground gains until the launch of Operation Changing Direction 11, which lasted for 3 days with disputed results. Shortly before a UN ceasefire came into effect, Israeli troops captured Wadi Saluki. The war concluded with Hezbollah evacuating its forces from Southern Lebanon, while the IDF remained until its positions could be handed over to the Lebanese Armed Forces and UNIFIL.

In 2007 education was made compulsory until the age of 18 for all citizens (it had been 16). Refugees from the genocide in Darfur, mostly Muslim, arrived in Israel illegally, with some given Asylum. Illegal immigrants arrived mainly from Africa in addition to foreign workers overstaying their visas. The numbers of such migrants are not known, and estimates vary between 30,000 and over 100,000.

In June 2007, Hamas took control of the Gaza Strip in the course of the Battle of Gaza, seizing government institutions and replacing Fatah and other government officials with its own. Following the takeover, Egypt and Israel largely sealed their border crossings with Gaza imposing a blockade, on the grounds that Fatah had fled and was no longer providing security on the Palestinian side, and to prevent arms smuggling by terrorist groups. On September 6, 2007, the Israeli Air Force destroyed a nuclear reactor in Syria. On February 28, 2008, Israel launched a military campaign in Gaza in response to the constant firing of Qassam rockets by Hamas militants. On July 16, 2008, Hezbollah swapped the bodies of Israeli soldiers Ehud Goldwasser and Eldad Regev, kidnapped in 2006, in exchange for the Lebanese terrorist Samir Kuntar, four Hezbollah prisoners, and the bodies of 199 Palestinian Arab and Lebanese fighters.

Olmert also came under investigation for corruption and this ultimately led him to announce, on July 30, 2008, that he would be stepping down as Prime Minister following election of a new leader of the Kadima party in September 2008. Tzippi Livni won the election, but was unable to form a coalition and he remained in office until the general election. Israel carried out Operation Cast Lead in the Gaza Strip from December 27, 2008, to January 18, 2009 in response to rocket attacks from Hamas militants, leading to a decrease of Palestinian rocket attacks.

2009–present: Netanyahu II

In the 2009 legislative election Likud won 27 seats and Kadima 28; however, the right-wing camp won a majority of seats, and President Shimon Peres called on Netanyahu to form the government. Russian immigrant-dominated Yisrael Beiteinu came third with 15 seats, and Labour was reduced to fourth place with 13 seats. In 2009, Israeli billionaire Yitzhak Tshuva announced the discovery of huge natural gas reserves off the coast of Israel.

On May 31, 2010, an international incident broke out in the Mediterranean Sea when foreign activists trying to break the maritime blockade over Gaza, clashed with Israeli troops. During the struggle, nine Turkish activists were killed. In late September 2010 took place direct negotiations between Israel and the Palestinians without success. As a defensive countermeasure to the rocket threat against Israel's civilian population, at the end of March 2011 Israel began to operate the advanced mobile air defence system "Iron Dome" in the southern region of Israel and along the border with the Gaza Strip.

Protest in Tel Aviv on 6 August 2011

On 14 July, 2011, the largest social protest in the history of Israel began in which hundreds of thousands of protesters from a variety of socio-economic and religious backgrounds in Israel protested against the continuing rise in the cost of living (particularly housing) and the deterioration of public services in the country (such as health and education). The peak of the demonstrations took place on September 3, 2011, in which about 400,000 people demonstrated across the country.

In October 2011, a deal was reached between Israel and Hamas, by which the kidnapped Israeli soldier Gilad Shalit was released in exchange for 1,027 Palestinians and Arab-Israeli prisoners. In March 2012, Secretary-general of the Popular Resistance Committees, Zuhir al-Qaisi, a senior PRC member and two additional Palestinian militants were assassinated during a targeted killing carried out by Israeli forces in Gaza. The Palestinian armed factions in the Gaza Strip, led by the Islamic Jihad and the Popular Resistance Committees, fired a massive amount of rockets towards southern Israel in retaliation, sparking five days of clashes along the Gaza border.

In May 2012, Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu reached an agreement with the Head of Opposition Shaul Mofaz for Kadima to join the current government, thus canceling the early election supposed to be held in September. However, on July Kadima party left Netanyahu's government due to a dispute concerning military conscription for ultra-Orthodox Jews in Israel.

In June 2012, Israel transferred the bodies of 91 Palestinian suicide bombers and other militants as part of what Mark Regev, spokesman for Netanyahu, described as a "humanitarian gesture" to PA chairman Mahmoud Abbas to help revive the peace talks, and reinstate direct negotiations between Israel and the Palestinians. On October 21, 2012, United States and Israel began their biggest joint air and missile defense exercise, known as Austere Challenge 12, involving around 3,500 U.S. troops in the region along with 1,000 IDF personnel, expected to last three weeks. Germany and Britain also participated. In response to over a hundred rocket attacks on southern Israeli cities, Israel began an operation in Gaza on November 14, 2012, with the targeted killing of Ahmed Jabari, chief of Hamas military wing, and airstrikes against twenty underground sites housing long-range missile launchers capable of striking Tel Aviv. In January 2013, construction of the barrier on the Israeli-Egyptian border was completed in its main section.

Statistics

Development of Israel 1990 2000 2010

Population (millions) 4.8 6 7.5

 % of world's Jews 30% 39% 42%

GDP per capita 65,000 77,000 90,000 (2006)

In the whole, in this period the state of Israel continued to exist and had wars with Arabs. The Palestinian Arabs could get a big autonomy in this time.

Questions:

1. What were the main features of the Israel history in this time?

61. Islamic countries from 1990 till now.

a) The countries of Balkans, Asia Minor and Caucasus.

Albania:

In 1990 the Albanian leader Ramiz Alia introduced some minor reforms. However in December 1990 student demonstrations forced the government to allow other political parties to form in Albania. Elections were held on 31 March 1991. The Communists won but a general strike in June forced them to resign. A coalition then ruled Albania until new elections were held in March 1992 and the Communist Party was forced to re-invented itself as the Socialist Party.

In 1995 and 1996 pyramid investment schemes sprang up in Albania but at the end of 1996 they began to collapse. The result was unrest in Albania which forced the government to hold new elections in June 1997.

Gradually stability returned to Albania. However since 1998 the Albanian economy has grown although Albania remains a poor country. Today the government is trying to improve infrastructure in Albania. Meanwhile in 2009 Albania joined NATO. Today the population of Albania is 3 million.

Bosnia and Herzegowina:

 Bosnia and Herzegovina's declaration of sovereignty in October 1991, was followed by a declaration of independence from the former Yugoslavia on 3 March 1992 after a referendum boycotted by ethnic Serbs. The Bosnian Serbs - supported by neighboring Serbia and Montenegro - responded with armed resistance aimed at partitioning the republic along ethnic lines and joining Serb-held areas to form a "greater Serbia." In March 1994, Bosniaks and Croats reduced the number of warring factions from three to two by signing an agreement creating a joint Bosniak/Croat Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. On 21 November 1995, in Dayton, Ohio, the warring parties signed a peace agreement that brought to a halt the three years of interethnic civil strife (the final agreement was signed in Paris on 14 December 1995). The Dayton Agreement retained Bosnia and Herzegovina's international boundaries and created a joint multi-ethnic and democratic government. This national government was charged with conducting foreign, economic, and fiscal policy. Also recognized was a second tier of government comprised of two entities roughly equal in size: the Bosniak/Croat Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Bosnian Serb-led Republika Srpska (RS). The Federation and RS governments were charged with overseeing internal functions. In 1995-96, a NATO-led international peacekeeping force (IFOR) of 60,000 troops served in Bosnia to implement and monitor the military aspects of the agreement. IFOR was succeeded by a smaller, NATO-led Stabilization Force (SFOR) whose mission is to deter renewed hostilities. SFOR remains in place although troop levels were reduced to approximately 12,000 by the close of 2002.Since its 1992 independence and the 1995 Constitutional framework of the Dayton Agreement, Bosnia and Herzegovina has followed a path of state-building, while remaining under final international supervision through the figure of the High Representative for Bosnia and Herzegovina. Bosnia and Herzegovina is a confederation of two Entities - the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Republika Srpska, as well as the district of Brčko. Each of the Entities has its own constitution and extensive legislative powers. Bosnia and Herzegovina is a potential candidate country for accession into the EU; an EU-BiH Stabilization and Association Agreement has been signed in 2008. Its accession to NATO is in the phase of negotiation, and a Membership Action Plan has been signed in April 2010.

Turkey:

Starting in July 1987, the South-East was submitted to state of emergency legislation, a measure which lasted until November 2002. With the turn of the 1990s, political instability returned. The 1995 elections brought a short-lived coalition between Yılmaz's ANAP and the True Path Party, now with Tansu Çiller at the helm.

In 1997, the military, citing his government's support for religious policies deemed dangerous to Turkey's secular nature, sent a memorandum to Prime Minister Necmettin Erbakan requesting that he resign, which he did. This was named a postmodern coup. Shortly thereafter, the Welfare Party (RP) was banned and reborn as the Virtue Party (FP). A new government was formed by ANAP and Ecevit's Democratic Left Party (DSP) supported from the outside by the center-left Republican People's Party (CHP), led by Deniz Baykal. The DSP won big in the 1999 elections. Second place went to the far-right Nationalist Movement Party (MHP). These two parties, alongside Yılmaz's ANAP formed a government. The government was somewhat effective, if not harmonious, bringing about much-needed economic reform, instituting human rights legislation, and bringing Turkey ever closer to the European Union.

AKP government

A series of economic shocks led to new elections in 2002, bringing into power the conservative Justice and Development Party (AK Party) of former mayor of Istanbul, Recep Tayyip Erdoğan. The political reforms of AK Party has ensured the beginning of the negotiations with the European Union. AK Party again won the 2007 elections, which followed the controversial August 2007 presidential election, during which AK Party member Abdullah Gül was elected President at the third round. Recent developments in Iraq (explained under positions on terrorism and security), secular and religious concerns, the intervention of the military in political issues, relations with the EU, the United States, and the Muslim world were the main issues. The outcome of this election, which brought the Turkish and Kurdish ethnic/nationalist parties (MHP and DTP) into the parliament, will affect Turkey's bid for the European Union membership, as Turkish perceptions of the current process (or lack thereof) affected the results and will continue to affect policy making in coming years.

AKP is after all the only government in Turkish political history that has managed to win three general elections in a row with an increasing amount of votes received in each one. The AKP has positioned itself in the midpoint of the Turkish political scene, much thanks to the stability brought by steady economic growth since they came to power in 2002. A large part of the population have welcomed the marking of an end to the political and economic instability being present under the 1990s, often associated with coalition governments, see Economic history of Turkey. 2011 figures showed a 9% GDP growth for Turkey.

Alleged members of a clandestine group called Ergenekon were detained in 2008 as part of a long and complex trial. Members are accused of terrorism and plotting to overthrow the civilian government.

On 22 February 2010 more than 40 officers arrested and then were formally charged with attempting to overthrow the government with respect to so-called "Sledgehammer" plot. They include four admirals, a general and two colonels, some of them retired, including former commanders of the Turkish navy and air force (three days later, the former commanders of the navy and air force were released).

Azerbaijian:

Perestroika (restructuring) in the late 1980s was also a time of increasing tension with Armenia. Tit-for-tat ethnic squabbles between Armenians and Azeris over the status of Nagorno-Karabakh bubbled over into virtual ethnic cleansing, as minorities in both republics fled escalating violence. On 20 January 1990, the Red Army made a crassly heavy-handed intervention in Baku, killing dozens of civilians and turning public opinion squarely against Russia. Azerbaijan declared its independence from the Soviet Union in 1991.

Independent again

Few moments have shocked the nation more than the massacre of Azeri civilians by Armenian forces at Xocalı on 26 February 1992. Public opinion turned against the dithering post-independence president, Ayaz Mütəllibov, who was ousted and replaced in June 1992 by Әbülfəz Elçibəy. He in turn fled a year later in the face of an internal military rebellion. This was come-back time for Parliamentary Chairman Heydar Әliyev, who had been Azerbaijan’s communist party chairman in the 1970s and a Politburo member in the 1980s. Shoehorned into the presidency, Әliyev stabilised the fractious country and signed a cease-fire agreement with Armenia and Nagorno-Karabakh in May 1994. However, around 13% of Azerbaijan’s territory remained under Armenian occupation, with around 800, 000 Azeris left homeless or displaced. Azerbaijan was faced with a tragic impasse. Rehousing the refugees would be seen as an admission of defeat in Karabakh. But renewed conflict would prevent investment and economic recovery. The compromise was to do relatively little, and in the meantime an entire generation of Azeri refugee children have grown up without a proper home or education.

Heydar Aliyev presidency (1993-2003)

Former Azerbaijani President Heydar Aliyev was the first Azeri member of the Politburo. On 3 October 1993 a presidential election was held, and Aliyev won overwhelmingly. By March 1994, Aliyev was able to get rid of some of his opposition including Surat Huseynov, who was arrested along with other rivals. In 1995, the former military police were accused of plotting a coup and disbanded. Coup plotters were linked to right wing Turkish nationalists. Later, in 1996 Rəsul Quliyev, former speaker of parliament went into self-imposed exile. Thus, by end of 1996, position of Heydar Aliyev as an absolute ruler in Azerbaijan was unquestionable.

As a result of limited reforms and the signing of the so-called "Contract of The Century" in October 1994 (over the Azeri-Chirag-Guneshli giant oil field) that led to increased oil exports to western markets, the economy began improving. However, extreme levels of corruption and nepotism in the state system created by Aliyev prevented Azerbaijan from more sustained development, especially in the non-oil sector.

In October 1998, Aliev was re-elected as president for a second term. Weakened opposition accused him of voter fraud, but no widespread international condemnation of the elections followed. His second term in office was characterized by limited reforms, increasing oil production and the dominance of British Petroleum as a main foreign oil company in Azerbaijan. In early 1999, a giant Shah Deniz gas field was discovered making Azerbaijan potentially a major gas exporter. A gas export agreement was signed with Turkey by 2003. Work on a long awaited Baku-Tbilisi-Ceyhan oil pipeline and Baku-Tbilisi-Erzerum gas pipeline started in 2003. The oil pipeline was completed in 2005 and the gas pipeline in 2006. Azerbaijan is also a party to the proposed Nabucco Pipeline.

Ilham Aliyev

Heydar Aliyev fell ill and, in April 2003, collapsed on stage and could not return to public life. By summer 2003 he was placed into intensive care in the United States where he was pronounced dead on December 12, 2003.

Ilham Aliyev presidency (2003)

In yet another controversial election, his son Ilham Aliyev was elected president the same year. The election was characterized by mass violence and was criticised by foreign observers. Presently, political opposition to the Aliyev administration remains strong. Many were not satisfied with this new dynastical succession and were pushing for a more democratic government. Ilham Aliyev was re-elected in 2008 with 87% of the polls, while opposition parties boycotted the elections. In a constitutional referendum in 2009, term limits for the presidency were abolished and freedom of the press was restricted.

The 2010 parliamentary elections produced a Parliament completely loyal to Aliyev: for the first time in Azerbaijani history, not a single candidate from the main opposition Azerbaijan Popular Front or Musavat parties was elected. The Economist scored Azerbaijan as an authoritarian regime, placing it 135th out of 167 countries, in its 2010 Democracy Index.

Repeated protests were staged against Aliyev's rule in 2011, calling for democratic reforms and the ouster of the government. Aliyev has responded by ordering a security crackdown, using force to crush attempts at revolt in Baku, and refusing to make concessions. Well over 400 Azerbaijanis have been arrested since protests began in March 2011. Opposition leaders, including Musavat's Isa Gambar, have vowed to continue demonstrating, although police have encountered little difficulty in stopping protests almost as soon as they began.

On 24 October 2011 Azerbaijan was elected as a non-permanent member to United Nations Security Council. The term of office began on January 1, 2012. In May 2012 the musical competition "Eurovision" was held in Baku.

In the whole, the Islamic countries of the region were in this time the Europe-friendly and went on the way of democracy.

b) Arabic countries of the Near East.

Syria:

 After the Gulf War, Syria accepted the US invitation for an international peace conference on the Middle East . The conference, held in Madrid in November 1991, marked the launch of bilateral Arab-Israeli peace talks. The talks were based on the UN resolutions calling for Israeli withdrawal from territories occupied in 1967, and on the so-called 'land for peace' formula. However, they were stalled for years because of Israel 's continuous refusal to give back any Arab territory. The Arab position was more weakened when the Palestinians and the Jordanians signed separate peace agreements with Israel in 1993 and 1994. Syria and Lebanon , however, vowed to sign peace together or sign not. Syria continued to support the Lebanese resistance fighters led by Hizbollah against the Israeli occupation forces in South Lebanon . In May 2000, Hizbollah succeeded in driving Israel out of Southern Lebanon after 22 years of occupation.

 Syrian-Israeli peace talks reached a dead end in 1996 with Israel refusing to discuss the complete withdrawal from the Golan Heights . In late 1999, Israel signaled its will to accept such move, and the talks were resumed in the US , this time at a high level between Foreign Minister Farouq al-Sahara'a and Israeli Prime Minister Ehud Barak. The talks were again stalled in early 2000 when Barak tried to exclude the northeastern shore of the Lake Tiberis from the proposed Israeli withdrawal plan. Syria made it clear that no single inch of the Syrian soil will be given away.

 On June 10th 2000 , President Assad died of a heart attack. His son, Bashar al-Assad was elected President on July 10th. Syria is a member of one International organization other than the United Nations, the Non-Aligned Movement; it is currently suspended from the Arab League, the Organisation of Islamic Cooperation, and self suspended from the Union for the Mediterranean.

Since March 2011, Syria has been embroiled in civil war in the wake of uprisings (considered an extension of the Arab Spring, the mass movement of revolutions and protests in the Arab world) against Assad and the neo-Ba'athist government.

Lebanon:

The internal political situation in Lebanon significantly changed in early 2000s. After the Israeli withdrawal from southern Lebanon and the death of Hafez Al-Assad in 2000, the Syrian military presence faced criticism and resistance from the Lebanese population.

On 14 February 2005, former Prime Minister Rafik Hariri was assassinated in a car bomb explosion. Leaders of the March 14 Alliance accused Syria of the attack, while the March 8 Alliance and Syrian officials claimed that the Mossad was behind the assassination. The Hariri assassination marked the beginning of a series of assassinations that resulted in the death of many prominent Lebanese figures.

The assassination triggered the Cedar Revolution, a series of demonstrations which demanded the withdrawal of Syrian troops from Lebanon and the establishment of an international commission to investigate the assassination. Under pressure from the West, Syria began withdrawing, and by 26 April 2005 all Syrian soldiers had returned to Syria.

The UNSC Resolution 1595 called for an investigation into the assassination. The UN International Independent Investigation Commission published its preliminary findings on 20 October 2005 in the Mehlis report, which cited indications that the assassination was organized by Syrian and Lebanese intelligence services.

On 12 July 2006, Hezbollah launched a series of rocket attacks and raids into Israeli territory, where they killed three Israeli soldiers and captured a further two. Israel responded with airstrikes and artillery fire on targets in Lebanon, and a ground invasion of southern Lebanon, resulting in the 2006 Lebanon War. The conflict was officially ended by the UNSC Resolution 1701 on 14 August 2006, which ordered a ceasefire. Some 1,191 Lebanese and 160 Israelis were killed in the conflict. Beirut's southern suburb was heavily damaged by Israeli airstrikes where Hezbollah military infrastructure was deeply embedded among the civilian population.

In 2007, the Nahr al-Bared refugee camp became the center of the 2007 Lebanon conflict between the Lebanese Army and Fatah al-Islam. At least 169 soldiers, 287 insurgents and 47 civilians were killed in the battle. Funds for the reconstruction of the area have been slow to materialize.

Between 2006 and 2008, a series of protests led by groups opposed to the pro-Western Prime Minister Fouad Siniora demanded the creation of a national unity government, over which the mostly Shia opposition groups would have veto power. When Émile Lahoud's presidential term ended in October 2007, the opposition refused to vote for a successor unless a power-sharing deal was reached, leaving Lebanon without a president.

On 9 May 2008, Hezbollah and Amal forces, sparked by a government declaration that Hezbollah's communications network was illegal, seized western Beirut, leading to the 2008 conflict in Lebanon. The Lebanese government denounced the violence as a coup attempt. At least 62 people died in the resulting clashes between pro-government and opposition militias. On 21 May 2008, the signing of the Doha Agreement ended the fighting. As part of the accord, which ended 18 months of political paralysis, Michel Suleiman became president and a national unity government was established, granting a veto to the opposition. The agreement was a victory for opposition forces, as the government caved in to all their main demands.

In early January 2011, the national unity government collapsed due to growing tensions stemming from the Special Tribunal for Lebanon, which was expected to indict Hezbollah members for the Hariri assassination.The parliament elected Najib Mikati, the candidate for the Hezbollah-led March 8 Alliance, Prime Minister of Lebanon, making him responsible for forming a new government. Hezbollah leader Hassan Nasrallah insists that Israel was responsible for the assassination of Hariri. A report leaked by the Al-Akhbar newspaper in November 2010 stated that Hezbollah has drafted plans for a takeover of the country in the case an indictment against its members is issued by the Special Tribunal for Lebanon.

The 2012 Syrian civil war threatens to spill over in Lebanon, causing more incidents of sectarian violence and armed clashes between Sunnis and Alawites in Tripoli. As of 13 February 2013, more than 182,938 Syrian refugees are in Lebanon. As the number of Syrian refugees increases, the Lebanese Forces Party, the Kataeb Party, and the Free Patriotic Movement fear the country’s sectarian based political system is being undermined.

Iraq:

In August 1990, Iraq invaded and annexed Kuwait. This subsequently led to military intervention by United States-led forces in the Second Gulf War. The coalition forces proceeded with a bombing campaign targeting military targets. Shortly after the war ended in 1991, Shia Muslim and Kurdish Iraqis led several uprisings against the regime, but these were successfully repressed by Hussein. It is estimated that as many as 100,000 people were killed. The US, UK, France and Turkey claiming authority under UNSCR 688, established the Iraqi no-fly zones to protect Kurdish and Shiite populations from attacks by the Hussein regime's aircraft.

The Iraqi government claimed some inspectors were spies for the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency.On multiple occasions throughout the disarmament crisis, the UN passed further resolutions (see United Nations Resolutions concerning Iraq) compelling Iraq to comply with the terms of the ceasefire resolutions.

During the late 1990s, the U.N. considered relaxing the Iraq sanctions because of the hardships suffered by ordinary Iraqis. Studies dispute the number of people who died in south and central Iraq during the years of the sanctions.

In October 1998, U.S. President Bill Clinton signed the Iraq Liberation Act, calling for "regime change" in Iraq, and initiated Operation Desert Fox.

Kurdish Peshmerga became the northern front of the invasion and eventually defeated Ansar Al-Islam in Northern Iraq before the invasion and Saddam's forces in the north. The battle led to the killing of a substantial number of militants and the uncovering of what was claimed to be a chemical weapons facility at Sargat. In October 2002, the U.S. Congress passed the Joint Resolution to Authorize the Use of United States Armed Forces Against Iraq, and in November the UN Security Council passed UNSCR 1441.

American occupation and aftermath

On March 20, 2003, a United States-organized coalition invaded Iraq, with the stated reason that Iraq had failed to abandon its nuclear and chemical weapons development program in violation of U.N. Resolution 687. These claims were based on documents that were provided by the CIA and the government of the United Kingdom.However, according to a comprehensive U.S. government report, no weapons of mass destruction have been found. Antiquated warheads containing trace amounts of the nerve gas cyclosarin were found, but U.S. military tests found they would "have limited to no impact if used by insurgents against coalition forces."

Following the invasion, the United States established the Coalition Provisional Authority to govern Iraq. In May 2003 L. Paul Bremer, the chief executive of the CPA, issued orders to exclude Baath Party members from the new Iraqi government (CPA Order 1) and to disband the Iraqi Army (CPA Order 2).The decision to dissolve the army was blamed for leading many Sunnis, who led much of the army, to join the insurgency against American occupation.[54] The exclusion of people who belonged to the ruling party and the abolition of whole ministries were considered to have gutted the state and helped bring about chaos.

The occupation years saw intense violence between Sunnis and Shias, death squads being a major threat to stability and security. By 2007, the violence had increased to the point of being described in the United States' National Intelligence Estimate as a civil war. On December 30, 2006, Saddam Hussein was hanged. Some of his closest associates were also executed.Ali Hassan al-Majid (aka Chemical Ali) was executed in 2010 for his role in the Halabja poison gas attack in 1988.

There have since been many attacks on Iraqi minorities such as the Yezidis, Mandeans, Assyrians and others. A U.S. troop surge was enacted to deal with increased violence; in September 2007, General Petraeus stated that the surge's goals were being met.Violence in Iraq began to decline from the summer of 2007. Iraq also suffered a cholera outbreak in 2007.

Crime and violence initially spiked in the months following the US withdrawal from cities. Despite the initial increase in violence, in November 2009, Iraqi Interior Ministry officials reported that the civilian death toll in Iraq fell to its lowest level since the 2003 invasion. U.S. troops continued to work with Iraqi forces after the pullout.

The Status of Forces Agreement stated that U.S. troops would leave the country on December 31, 2011. On the morning of December 18, the final contingent of U.S. troops to be withdrawn ceremonially exited over the border to Kuwait, though the U.S. still maintains two bases and approximately 4,000 troops in the country. U.S. and Kuwaiti troops closed the gate between Kuwait and Iraq on December 18, 2011.

The Iraqi National Movement, reportedly representing the majority of Iraqi Sunnis, boycotted Parliament for several weeks in late 2011 and early 2012, claiming that the Shiite-dominated government was striving to sideline Sunnis. In January 2012, Vice President Tariq al-Hashimi, a Sunni, fled to the semi-autonomous Kurdish region after the government accused him of running a sectarian death squad; in February, a panel of Iraqi judges concluded that "death squads commanded by Mr. Hashimi carried out 150 attacks over six years against religious pilgrims, security officers and political foes". Insurgent forces continue to be active.

Jordan:

Further elections were held in 1993. In 1994 Jordan signed a peace treaty with Israel. Abdullah II became king of Jordan in 1999. Today Jordan faces economic challenges such as poverty and unemployment but there is reason to be optimistic about the future. Jordan has great potential for tourism.Today the population of Jordan is 6.5 million.

Saudi Arabia:

In the early 2000s, the Islamicist opposition to the regime carried out a series of terrorist attacks. Abdullah succeeded Fahd in 2005 and has instituted a number of mild reforms to modernize many of the country's institutions and, to some extent, has increased political participation.

Yemen:

The Republic of Yemen was established on May 22, 1990, when pro-Western Yemen and the Marxist Yemen Arab Republic merged after 300 years of separation to form the new nation. The poverty and decline in Soviet economic support in the south was an important incentive for the merger. The new president, Ali Abdullah Saleh, was elected by the parliaments of both countries.

Differences over power sharing and the pace of integration between the north and the south came to a head in 1994, resulting in a civil war. The north's superior forces quickly overwhelmed the south in May and early June despite the south's brief declaration of succession. The victorious north presented a reconciliation plan providing for a general amnesty and pledges to protect political democracy.

The president's party, the General People's Congress, won an enormous victory in the April 1997 parliamentary elections, the first since the civil war. In 1998–1999, a militant Islamic group, the Aden-Abyan Islamic Army, kidnapped several groups of Western tourists, which led to the deaths of several during a poorly orchestrated rescue attempt. The group's leader, Zein al-Abidine al-Mihdar, threatened to continue attacks on tourists and government officials. The goal of the militants is to overthrow the government and turn Yemen into an Islamic state.

On Oct. 12, 2000, 17 Americans died and 37 were wounded when suicide bombers attacked the U.S. Navy destroyer Cole, which was refueling in Aden, Yemen. The U.S. had numerous clashes with Yemeni authorities during the investigation of the terrorist act. After the Sept. 11 terrorist attacks on the U.S., however, Yemen increased its cooperation with the U.S. and assisted in antiterrorism measures. In Oct. 2002, a French tanker, the Limburg, was also the victim of a terrorist attack off the coast of Yemen. Ten suspects of the Cole bombing escaped from prison in April 2003; seven, including the two suspected masterminds of the attack, were recaptured in 2004. Fifteen militants were convicted in Aug. 2004 on a variety of charges, including the attack on the Limburg. In September, two key al-Qaeda operatives involved in the Cole bombing were sentenced to death.

In presidential elections in Sept. 2006, incumbent Ali Abdullah Saleh was reelected with 77% of the vote. In March 2007, President Saleh appointed Ali Muhammad Mujawar prime minister and asked him to form a cabinet.In the 2000s the government has been fighting numerous rebel groups, such as the one led by Hussein al-Houthi's Zaydi movement Shabab al-Mu'mineen, "The Young Believers". In 2009, armed insurgency also resumed in southern Yemen, led by South Yemen Movement successors.

The 2011 Yemeni revolution followed other mass protests in the Arab world in early 2011. The uprising was initially against unemployment, economic conditions, and corruption, as well as against the government's proposals to modify the constitution of Yemen so that Saleh's son could inherit the presidency.

In March 2011, police snipers opened fire on the pro-democracy camp in Sana'a, killing more than 50 people. In May, dozens were killed in clashes between troops and tribal fighters in Sana'a. By this point, Saleh began to lose international support. In October 2011, Yemeni human rights activist Tawakul Karman won the Nobel Peace Prize and the UN Security Council condemned the violence and called for a transfer of power. On 23 November 2011, Saleh flew to Riyadh, in neighbouring Saudi Arabia, to sign the Gulf Co-operation Council plan for political transition, which he had previously spurned. Upon signing the document, he agreed to legally transfer the office and powers of the presidency to his deputy, Vice President Abd Rabbuh Mansur Hadi.

Hadi took office for a two-year term upon winning the uncontested presidential elections in February 2012. A unity government – including a prime minister from the opposition – was formed. Al-Hadi will oversee the drafting of a new constitution, followed by parliamentary and presidential elections in 2014. Saleh returned in February 2012. In the face of objections from thousands of street protesters, parliament granted him full immunity from prosecution. Saleh's son, General Ahmed Ali Abdullah Saleh continues to exercise a strong hold on sections of the military and security forces.

AQAP claimed responsibility for the February 2012 suicide attack on the presidential palace which killed 26 Republican Guards on the day that President Hadi was sworn in. AQAP was also behind the suicide boming which killed 96 soldiers in Sanaa three months later. In September 2012, a car bomb attack in Sanaa killed 11 people, a day after a local al-Qaeda leader Said al-Shihri was reported killed in the south.

By 2012 there has been a "small contingent of U.S. special-operations troops" in addition to CIA and "unofficially acknowledged" U.S. military presence in response to increasing terror attacks by AQAP on Yemeni citizens. Many analysts have pointed out the former Yemeni government role in cultivating terrorist activity in the country in 2012 Abyan offensive, The new president Abd Rabbuh Mansur Hadi and the Yemeni military was able to recapture the governorate. Yet, former president Saleh continue to hinder the new government effort as his sons are still running security sectors in the country.

Oman:

A long border dispute with Yemen ended in late Oct. 1992 when the sultan signed an agreement with the Yemeni president. In 1997, Oman and Yemen signed maps defining the border between the two countries.

 In 1997, Sultan Qabus granted women the right to be elected to the country's consultative body, the Shura Council (Majlis al-Shura). The council has no formal powers, but it advises the sultan on economic matters and public policy. Two women were elected to the council in 1997 as well as in 2000.

In the whole, in this period the Islamic fundamentalist became the big problem in the Arabic countries. The American imperialism and Israel zionism remained their main enemies.

c) Middle East and Central Asia

Iran:

On his deathbed in 1989, Khomeini appointed a 25-man Constitutional Reform Council which named Ali Khamenei as the next Supreme Leader, and made a number of changes to Iran's constitution. A smooth transition followed Khomeini's death on June 3, 1989. While Khamenei lacked Khomeini's "charisma and clerical standing", he developed a network of supporters within Iran's armed forces and its economically powerful religious foundations. Under his reign Iran's regime is said – by at least one observer – to resemble more "a clerical oligarchy ... than an autocracy."

Succeeding Khamenei as president was pragmatic conservative Ali-Akbar Hashemi Rafsanjani, who served two four-year terms and focused his efforts on rebuilding Iran's economy and war-damaged infrastructure though low oil prices hampered this endeavour. His regime also successfully promoted birth control, cut military spending and normalized relations with neighbors such as Saudi Arabia. During the Persian Gulf War in 1991 the country remained neutral, restricting its action to the condemnation of the U.S. and allowing fleeing Iraqi aircraft and refugees into the country.

Rafsanjani was succeeded in 1997 by the reformist Mohammad Khatami. His presidency was soon marked by tensions between the reform-minded government and an increasingly conservative and vocal clergy. This rift reached a climax in July 1999 when massive anti-government protests erupted in the streets of Tehran. The disturbances lasted over a week before police and pro-government vigilantes dispersed the crowds.

Khatami was re-elected in June 2001 but his efforts were repeatedly blocked by the conservatives in the parliament. Conservative elements within Iran's government moved to undermine the reformist movement, banning liberal newspapers and disqualifying candidates for parliamentary elections. This clampdown on dissent, combined with the failure of Khatami to reform the government, led to growing political apathy among Iran's youth.

In June 2003, anti-government protests by several thousand students took place in Tehran. Several human rights protests also occurred in 2006.

Mahmoud Ahmadinejad, current President of Iran.

In 2005 Iranian presidential election, Mahmoud Ahmadinejad, mayor of Tehran, became the sixth president of Iran, after winning 62 percent of the vote in the run-off poll, against former president Ali-Akbar Hashemi Rafsanjani. During the authorization ceremony he kissed Khamenei's hand in demonstration of his loyalty to him.

During this time, the American invasion of Iraq, overthrow of Sadam Hussein's regime and empowerment of its Shi'a majority, all strengthened Iran's position in the region particularly in the mainly Shia south of Iraq, where a top Shia leader in the week of September 3, 2006 renewed demands for an autonomous Shia region. At least one commentator (Former U.S. Defense Secretary William S. Cohen) has stated that as of 2009 Iran's growing power has eclipsed anti-Zionism as the major foreign policy issue in the middle east.

During 2005 and 2006, there were claims that the United States and Israel were planning to attack Iran, for many different claimed reasons, including Iran's civilian nuclear energy program which the United States and some other states fear could lead to a nuclear weapons program, crude oil and other strategic reasons (including the Iranian Oil Bourse), electoral reasons in the USA and in Iran. P.R. China and Russia oppose military action of any sort and oppose economic sanctions. Ayatollah Ali Khamenei issued a fatwa forbidding the production, stockpiling and use of nuclear weapons. The fatwa was cited in an official statement by the Iranian government at an August 2005 meeting of the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) in Vienna.

A significant challenge to Ahmadinejad's political power, and the foundations of the Islamic Republic itself occurred during the 2009 Iranian presidential election that was held on 12 June 2009, the tenth presidential election to be held in the country. The Interior Ministry, announced incumbent president Mahmoud Ahmadinejad had won the election receiving 24.5 million votes, amounting to 62.63% of the vote, while Mir-Hossein Mousavi had come in second place with 13.2 million votes, being 33.75% of the vote. However, there were allegations of large irregularities in the results, provoking the 2009–2010 Iranian election protests both within Iran and in major capitals in the West.In 2009 Ahmadinejad's reelection was hotly disputed and marred by large protests that formed the "greatest domestic challenge" to the leadership of the Islamic Republic "in 30 years". Reformist opponent Mir-Hossein Mousavi and his supporters alleged voting irregularities and by 1 July 2009, 1000 people had been arrested and 20 killed in street demonstrations.Supreme Leader Ali Khamenei and other Islamic officials blamed foreign powers for fomenting the protest.

Aghanistan:

The Najibullah government collapsed in 1992. Kabul fell to a coalition of mujahideen under the military leadership of Ahmed Shah Massoud. More than a dozen mujahideen factions fought among themselves for control of the country until the emergence of the Pakistani-backed Taliban, which captured Kabul in 1996 and about 95 percent of the country by the end of 2000. The Afghan Northern Alliance was controlling the northeast portion of the country and held the United Nations seat. The Taliban strictly enforced Islamic Sharia laws. Women were banned from jobs, girls were forbidden to attend schools or universities, and thieves were punished by amputating their hands or feet.

After the 9/11 attacks, U.S.-led military strikes overthrew the Taliban government when it refused to hand over Osama bin Laden. In November 2001, Kabul fell to ground forces led by the Northern Alliance. U.S. Deputy Secretary of State Richard Armitage then threatened General Pervez Musharraf, the Pakistani leader, that he had to decide whether to be with America or with the terrorists, and that if he decided to go with the latter, Pakistan should be prepared to be bombed back to the Stone Age. Only then did Musharraf abandon the Taliban.

During the U.S. attack on Afghanistan in 2001, American special forces organized the evacuation of Pakistani army officers, intelligence advisers, and volunteers who had been trapped fighting alongside the Taliban. This was done via Pakistani airlift from Kunduz, where they were trapped. Musharraf won U.S. support for the airlift by warning that the humiliation resulting from losing hundreds, if not thousands, of Pakistani soldiers and intelligence operatives would jeopardize his own regime.

In December 2001, a conference of Afghan representatives met in Bonn, Germany, and created a framework for an interim government and laid down a timetable for the transition to democracy. An interim government headed by U.S.-approved Hamid Karzai, an ethnic Pashtun from the southern city of Kandahar, was sworn in as chairman of the Afghan Interim Authority.

During the Loya Jirga (“great council”) in June, 2002, more than 2000 delegates gathered for the formation of the new cabinet. Initially, a grassroots movement supported the former king, Mohammed Zahir Shah, as head of state. The Loya Jirga was then postponed for two days and the former king was forced to renounce any role in the government. In the gathering, intelligence agents openly threatened reform-minded delegates, especially women. Access to the microphone was controlled so that supporters of the interim government dominated the proceedings. The Loya Jirga consequently reaffirmed Karzai as interim president.

Because of fear of violence, many delegates lost the will to demand their democratic rights. A leading activist for women’s rights explained: “Today we are Loya Jirga delegates, but tomorrow we go home as individuals. Who will protect us if we continue to express our views and fight for our rights?”

From December 2003 to January 2004, the Loya Jirga debated and ratified a constitution creating an Islamic state with a presidential system. In the October 2004 elections, Hamid Karzai won and became president of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan. Legislative elections were held in September 2005.

The government has much work to do to restore the country. The many years of war severely damaged Afghanistan’s society and economy. As a result of the prolonged fighting, the majority of Afghan elites and intellectuals fled the country. Illegal poppy cultivation is still a cash crop for poor farmers. In 2001, one hectare of poppy yielded a profit of $13,000, whereas one hectare of wheat and vegetables made only $100. Afghanistan is slowing recovering, but it has a long way to go. It is still struggling against poverty.

NATO officially took charge of the International Security Assistance Force in Afghanistan in August 2003. Although France opposed the Iraq War, its troops are fighting under U.S. command in Afghanistan and Central Asia. Apart from Kabul, law and order are absent in interior Afghanistan even after several years of the Karzai government. Some villagers have consequently started favoring the Taliban. NATO forces are now fighting a guerrilla war with the resurgent Taliban in south Afghanistan.

President Karzai is now in effect just mayor of the capital, Kabul; i.e., his authority is limited to Kabul only. In July 2007, Abdul Sattar Murad, governor of Kapisa province, told Newsweek, “In remote parts of the country there is practically a vacuum of authority, a vacuum of power. Somebody will have to fill that vacuum. Either the criminals fill that vacuum or the Taliban and al-Qaida do.” After this interview, Karzai fired Murad from his post as governor. Even in Kabul, it will take time to change the “Taliban mentality” since the Taliban ruled there for six to seven years. As an example of this mindset, Abdul Rahman, a longtime Christian convert, was arrested in Kabul in 2006 for converting to Christianity, and was set free only under intense international pressure.

Afghan and Western officials blame Pakistan’s ISI for restarting the training camps for the Taliban militants and providing them assistance to fight the Karzai government. They claim that Pakistan seeks a weak government in Kabul that it can influence. It also wants to keep tensions boiling in Pashtun-dominated areas on the frontier to block settlement of a decades-old border dispute that the new Afghan parliament is expected to try to end, they say. In addition, they allege that the Taliban are being allowed to maintain arms depots, training camps, and sanctuaries in the lawless tribal belt on Pakistan’s side of the frontier. According to Afghan officials, “Taliban is fighting a guerrilla war with new weapons, including portable anti-aircraft missiles, and equipment bought with cash sent through al-Qaeda network. The money is coming from rogue elements and factional elements living in the Middle East.”

 Recent history (2003-2008)

While the Taliban began regrouping inside Pakistan, more coalition troops entered the escalating US-led war. Meanwhile, the rebuilding of war-torn Afghanistan kicked off in 2002. The Afghan nation was able to build democratic structures over the years, and some progress was made in key areas such as governance, economy, health, education, transport, and agriculture. NATO is training the Afghan armed forces as well its national police. ISAF and Afghan troops led many offensives against the Taliban but failed to fully defeat them. By 2009, a Taliban-led shadow government began to form in many parts of the country complete with their own version of mediation court.[After U.S. President Barack Obama announced the deployment of another 30,000 soldiers in 2010 for a period of two years, Der Spiegel published images of the US soldiers who killed unarmed Afghan civilians.

At the 2010 International Conference on Afghanistan in London, Afghan President Hamid Karzai said he intends to reach out to the Taliban leadership (including Mullah Omar, Sirajuddin Haqqani and Gulbuddin Hekmatyar). Supported by NATO, Karzai called on the group's leadership to take part in a loya jirga meeting to initiate peace talks. These steps have resulted in an intensification of bombings, assassinations and ambushes. Some Afghan groups (including the former intelligence chief Amrullah Saleh and opposition leader Dr. Abdullah Abdullah) believe that Karzai plans to appease the insurgents' senior leadership at the cost of the democratic constitution, the democratic process and progress in the field of human rights especially women's rights. Dr. Abdullah stated:

I should say that Taliban are not fighting to be accommodated. They are fighting to bring the state down. So it's a futile exercise, and it's just misleading. ... There are groups that will fight to the death. Whether we like to talk to them or we don't like to talk to them, they will continue to fight. So, for them, I don't think that we have a way forward with talks or negotiations or contacts or anything as such. Then we have to be prepared to tackle and deal with them militarily. In terms of the Taliban on the ground, there are lots of possibilities and opportunities that with the help of the people in different parts of the country, we can attract them to the peace process; provided, we create a favorable environment on this side of the line. At the moment, the people are leaving support for the government because of corruption. So that expectation is also not realistic at this stage.

 Recent history (2008-2011)

Over five million Afghan refugees were repatriated in the last decade, including many who were forcefully deported from NATO countries. This large return of Afghans may have helped the nation's economy but the country still remains one of the poorest in the world due to the decades of war, lack of foreign investment, ongoing government corruption and the Taliban insurgency. According to a report by the United Nations, the Taliban and other militants were responsible for 76% of civilian casualties in 2009, 75% in 2010, 80% in 2011, 80% in 2012. In 2011 a record 3,021 civilians were killed in the ongoing insurgency, the fifth successive annual rise.

After the May 2011 death of Osama bin Laden in Pakistan, many prominent Afghan figures began being assassinated, including Mohammed Daud Daud, Ahmed Wali Karzai, Jan Mohammad Khan, Ghulam Haider Hamidi, Burhanuddin Rabbani and others. Also in the same year, the Pak-Afghan border skirmishes intensified and many large scale attacks by the Pakistani-based Haqqani Network took place across Afghanistan. This led to the United States warning Pakistan of a possible military action against the Haqqanis in the Federally Administered Tribal Areas. The U.S. blamed Pakistan's government, mainly Pakistan Army and its ISI spy network as the masterminds behind all of this

U.S. Ambassador to Pakistan, Cameron Munter, told Radio Pakistan that "The attack that took place in Kabul a few days ago, that was the work of the Haqqani Network. There is evidence linking the Haqqani Network to the Pakistan government. This is something that must stop." Other top U.S. officials such as Hillary Clinton and Leon Panetta made similar statements. On 16 October 2011, "Operation Knife Edge" was launched by NATO and Afghan forces against the Haqqani Network in south-eastern Afghanistan. Afghan Defense Minister, Abdul Rahim Wardak, explained that the operation will "help eliminate the insurgents before they struck in areas along the troubled frontier".

In anticipation of the 2014 NATO withdrawal and a subsequent expected push to regain power by the Taliban, the anti-Taliban United Front (Northern Alliance) groups have started to regroup under the umbrella of the National Coalition of Afghanistan (political arm) and the National Front of Afghanistan (military arm).

Kazakhstan:

Kazakhstan declared itself an independent country on December 16, 1991, the last Soviet republic to do so. Its communist-era leader, Nursultan Nazarbayev, became the country's first supreme chancellor, a position he has retained for more than two decades. Supreme Chancellor Nazarbayev maintains strict control over the country's politics. Since independence, Kazakhstan has pursued a balanced foreign policy and worked to develop its economy, especially its hydrocarbon industry. The post-Soviet era has also been characterized by increased involvement with many international organizations, including the United Nations, the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council, the Commonwealth of Independent States, and the Shanghai Cooperation Organisation. Kazakhstan is also one of six post-Soviet states who have implemented an Individual Partnership Action Plan with NATO. Kazakhstan is one of the active members of the Turkic Council and the TÜRKSOY community. The national language, Kazakh, is closely related to the other Turkic languages, with which it shares strong cultural and historical ties.

Kazakhstan is ethnically and culturally diverse, in part due to mass deportations of many ethnic groups to the country during Joseph Stalin's rule. Kazakhstan has a population of 16.6 million, with 131 ethnicities, including Kazakh, Russian, Ukrainian, German, Uzbek, Tatar, and Uyghur. Ethnic groups (2009): 63.1% Kazakh, 23.7% Russian, 2.9% Uzbek, 2.1% Ukrainian, 1.4% Uyghur, 1.3% Tatar, 1.1% German,

4.5% others. Islam is the religion of about 70.2% while Christianity is practiced by 26.2% of the population. The Kazakh language is the state language, while Russian is also officially used as an equal language to Kazakh in Kazakhstan's public institutions. The capital was moved in 1998 from Almaty, Kazakhstan's largest city, to Astana (former Tselinograd).

Turkmenistan:

In 1990 the Supreme Soviet of Turkmenistan declared sovereignty as a nationalist response to perceived exploitation by Moscow. Although Turkmenistan was ill-prepared for independence and communist leader Saparmurad Niyazov preferred to preserve the Soviet Union, in October 1991 the fragmentation of that entity forced him to call a national referendum that approved independence.

Saparmurat Niyazov

After independence Niyazov continued as Turkmenistan's chief of state, replacing communism with a unique brand of independent nationalism reinforced by a pervasive cult of personality. A 1994 referendum and legislation in 1999 abolished further requirements for the president to stand for re-election (although in 1992 he completely dominated the only presidential election in which he ran), making him effectively president for life. During his tenure, Niyazov conducted frequent purges of public officials and abolished organizations deemed threatening. Throughout the post-Soviet era, Turkmenistan has taken a neutral position on almost all international issues. Niyazov eschewed membership in regional organizations such as the Shanghai Cooperation Organization, and in the late 1990s he maintained relations with the Taliban and its chief opponent in Afghanistan, the Northern Alliance. He offered limited support to the military campaign against the Taliban following September 11, 2001. In 2002 an alleged assassination attempt against Niyazov led to a new wave of security restrictions, dismissals of government officials, and restrictions placed on the media.Niyazov accused exiled former foreign minister Boris Shikhmuradov of having planned the attack.

Between 2002 and 2004, serious tension arose between Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan because of bilateral disputes and Niyazov's implication that Uzbekistan had a role in the 2002 assassination attempt. In 2004 a series of bilateral treaties restored friendly relations. In the parliamentary elections of December 2004 and January 2005, only Niyazov's party was represented, and no international monitors participated.In 2005 Niyazov exercised his dictatorial power by closing all hospitals outside Ashgabat and all rural libraries.The year 2006 saw intensification of the trends of arbitrary policy changes, shuffling of top officials, diminishing economic output outside the oil and gas sector, and isolation from regional and world organizations.China was among a very few nations to whom Turkmenistan made significant overtures. The sudden death of Niyazov at the end of 2006 left a complete vacuum of power, as his cult of personality, compared to that of former president Kim Il Sung of North Korea, had precluded the naming of a successor. Deputy Prime Minister Kurbanguly Berdymukhamedov, who was named interim head of government, won the special presidential election held in early February 2007. He was re-elected in 2012 with 97% of the vote. Turkmenistan's GDP growth rate of 11% in 2012 comes on the back of several years of sustained high growth, but albeit from a very basic undiversified economy powered by export of a single commodity. It possesses the world's fourth largest reserves of natural gas resources.

Uzbekistan:

On August 31, 1991, Uzbekistan declared independence, proclaiming September 1 as the National Independence Day. Ethnic groups (1996):80.0% Uzbek, 5.5% Russian, 5% Tajik, 3.0% Kazakh, 2.5% Karakalpak, 1.5% Tatar, 2.5% others.

The first elections of the Oliy Majlis (Parliament) were held under a resolution adopted by the 16th Supreme Soviet in 1994. In that year, the Supreme Soviet was replaced by the Oliy Majlis. Since then Uzbekistan has held presidential and parliamentarian elections on regular basis but no real opposition candidates or parties are able to participate.

The third elections for the bicameral 150-member Oliy Majlis — the Legislative Chamber and the 100-member Senate — for five-year terms, were held on December 27, 2009, after the second elections that were held in December 2004–2005. The Oliy Majlis was unicameral up to 2004. Its strength increased from 69 deputies (members) in 1994 to 120 in 2004–05 and presently to 150.

The executive holds a great deal of power, and the legislature has little power to shape laws. Under terms of a December 27, 1995 referendum, Islam Karimov's first term was extended. Another national referendum was held January 27, 2002 to extend the Constitutional Presidential term from 5 years to 7 years.

The referendum passed, and Islam Karimov's term was extended by an act of parliament to December 2007. Most international observers refused to participate in the process and did not recognize the results, dismissing them as not meeting basic standards. The 2002 referendum also included a plan for a bicameral parliament, consisting of a lower house (the Oliy Majlis) and an upper house (Senate). Members of the lower house are to be "full time" legislators. Elections for the new bicameral parliament took place on December 26. There is currently a political sitation emerging in Uzbekistan around Islam Karimov and the selection of Akbar Abdullaev as successor.

The OSCE limited observation mission concluded that the elections fell significantly short of OSCE commitments and other international standards for democratic elections. Several political parties have been formed with government approval. Similarly, although multiple media outlets (radio, TV, newspaper) have been established, these either remain under government control or rarely broach political topics. Independent political parties were allowed to organise, recruit members and hold conventions and press conferences, but they have been denied registration under restrictive registration procedures.

Tajikistan:

1991 the Soviet Union collapsed, and Tajikistan declared its independence. The first nation to establish an embassy in Dushanbe was Iran, which was also one of the first countries to immediately recognize Tajikistan as an independent state in 1991. Ethnic groups (2000): 79.9% Tajik, 15.3% Uzbek, 1.1% Russian, 1.1% Kyrgyz, 2.6% others.

The nation almost immediately fell into a civil war that involved various factions fighting one another; these factions were often distinguished by clan loyalties. The non-Muslim population, particularly Russians and Jews, fled the country during this time because of persecution, increased poverty and better economic opportunities in the West or in other former Soviet republics.

Emomalii Rahmon came to power in 1994, defeating former prime minister Abdumalik Abdullajanov in a November presidential election with 58% of the vote. The elections took place shortly after the end of the war, and Tajikistan was in a state of complete devastation. The estimated dead numbered over 100,000. Around 1.2 million people were refugees inside and outside of the country. In 1997, a ceasefire was reached between Rahmon and opposition parties (United Tajik Opposition).

Peaceful elections were held in 1999, though they were criticized by opposition parties and foreign observers. Rahmon was re-elected with 98% of the vote. Elections were held again in 2006, with Rahmon winning a third term in office with 79% of the vote in a field of five candidates. Several opposition parties boycotted the election and the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe was critical of it, although observers from the Commonwealth of Independent States claimed the elections to be legal and transparent.

Rahmon's government came under criticism from the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) in October 2010 for its censorship and repression of the media. The OSCE claimed that the Tajik Government censored Tajik and foreign websites and instituted tax inspections on independent printing houses that lead to the cessation of printing activities for a number of independent newspapers.

Russian border troops were stationed along the Tajik-Afghan border until summer 2005. Since the September 11, 2001 attacks, French troops have been stationed at the Dushanbe Airport in support of air operations of NATO's International Security Assistance Force in Afghanistan. United States Army and Marine Corps personnel periodically visit Tajikistan to conduct joint training missions of up to several weeks duration. The Government of India rebuilt the Ayni Air Base, a military airport located 15 km southwest of Dushanbe, at a cost of $70 million, completing the repairs in September 2010. It is now the main base of the Tajikistan air force. There have been talks with Russia concerning use of the Ayni facility, and Russia continues to maintain a large base on the outskirts of Dushanbe and operate at least one military hospital in the capital city.

In 2010, there were concerns among Tajik officials that Islamic militarism in the east of the country was on the rise following the escape of 25 militants from a Tajik prison in August, an ambush that killed 28 Tajik soldiers in the Rasht Valley in September, and another ambush in the valley in October that killed 30 soldiers, followed by fighting outside Gharm that left 3 militants dead. To date the country's Interior Ministry asserts that the central government maintains full control over the country's east, and the military operation in the Rasht Valley was concluded in November 2010. However, fighting erupted again in July 2012.

Kyrghyzstan:

On 19 August 1991, when the State Emergency Committee assumed power in Moscow, there was an attempt to depose Akayev in Kyrgyzstan. After the coup collapsed the following week, Akayev and Vice President German Kuznetsov announced their resignations from the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU), and the entire bureau and secretariat resigned. This was followed by the Supreme Soviet vote declaring independence from the Soviet Union on 31 August 1991 as the Republic of Kyrgyzstan. Ethnic groups: 68.9% Kyrgyz,

14.4% Uzbek, 9.1% Russian, 7.6% others.

In October 1991, Akayev ran unopposed and was elected president of the new independent Republic by direct ballot, receiving 95 percent of the votes cast. Together with the representatives of seven other Republics that same month, he signed the Treaty of the New Economic Community. Finally, on 21 December 1991, Kyrgyzstan joined with the other four Central Asian Republics to formally enter the new Commonwealth of Independent States. Kyrgyzstan gained full independence a few days later on 25 December 1991. The following day, 26 December 1991, the Soviet Union ceased to exist. In 1992, Kyrgyzstan joined the United Nations and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE). On 5 May 1993, the official name changed from the Republic of Kyrgyzstan to the Kyrgyz Republic.

In 2005, a popular uprising known as the "Tulip Revolution", took place after the parliamentary elections in March 2005, forced President Askar Akayev's resignation on 4 April 2005. Opposition leaders formed a coalition, and a new government was formed under President Kurmanbek Bakiyev and Prime Minister Feliks Kulov. The nation's capital was looted during the protests.

Political stability appeared to be elusive, however, as various groups and factions allegedly linked to organized crime jockeyed for power. Three of the 75 members of Parliament elected in March 2005 were assassinated, and another member was assassinated on 10 May 2006 shortly after winning his murdered brother's seat in a by-election. All four are reputed to have been directly involved in major illegal business ventures.

On 6 April 2010, civil unrest broke out in the town of Talas after a demonstration against government corruption and increased living expenses. The protests became violent, spreading to Bishkek by the following day. Protesters attacked President Bakiyev's offices, as well as state-run radio and television stations. There were conflicting reports that Interior Minister Moldomusa Kongatiyev had been beaten. On 7 April 2010, President Bakiyev imposed a state of emergency. Police and special services arrested many opposition leaders. In response, protesters took control of the internal security headquarters (former KGB headquarters) and a state television channel in the capital, Bishkek. Reports by Kyrgyzstan government officials indicated that at least 75 people were killed and 458 hospitalized in bloody clashes with police in the capital.Reports say that at least 80 people died as a result of clashes with police. A transition government, led by former foreign minister Roza Otunbayeva, by 8 April 2010 had taken control of state media and government facilities in the capital, but Bakiyev had not resigned from office.

President Bakiyev returned to his home in Jalal-Abad and stated his terms of resignation at a 13 April 2010 press conference. On 15 April 2010, Bakiyev left the country and flew to neighboring Kazakhstan, along with his wife and two children. The country's provisional leaders announced that Bakiyev signed a formal letter of resignation prior to his departure.

Prime Minister Daniar Usenov accused Russia of supporting the protests; this accusation was denied by Russian Prime Minister, Vladimir Putin. Opposition members also called for the closing of the US controlled Manas Air Base. Russia's President Dmitry Medvedev ordered measures to ensure the safety of Russian nationals and tighten security around Russian sites in Kyrgyzstan to protect them against possible attacks.

Clashes occurred between the two main ethnic groups—the Uzbeks and Kyrgyz—in Osh, the second largest city in the country, on 11 June 2010. The clashes incited fears that the country could be heading towards a civil war.

Finding it difficult to control the situation, Otunbayeva, the interim leader, sent a letter to Russian president Dimitry Medvedev asking him to send Russian troops to help the country control the situation. Medvedev's Press Attaché, Natalya Timakova, said in a reply to the letter, "It is an internal conflict and for now Russia does not see the conditions for taking part in its resolution". The clashes caused a shortage of food and other essential commodities with more than 200 killed and 1,685 people hurt, as of 12 June 2010. The Russian government, however, said it would be sending humanitarian aid to the troubled nation.

Ethnic violence waned, according to the Kyrgyz government, by 15 June 2010 and Kyrgyz president Roza Otunbayeva held a news conference on Tuesday (15 June 2010) and declared that there was no need for Russia to send in troops to quell the violence. There were at least 170 people left dead by 15 June 2010 but Pascale Meige Wagner of the International Committee of the Red Cross said the [official] death toll was an underestimate. The UN High Commissioner told reporters in Geneva that evidence suggested that the violence seemed to have been staged up. The United Nations called for a "humanitarian corridor" to be set up to help the people affected by the riots and described the situation as a "tinder-box". There were fears that a referendum, which would pave the way for parliamentary style elections in October 2010, would be delayed but the Kyrgyz president calmed such fears by declaring that the referendum would be held as scheduled.

There were no reports of heavy fighting between the Kyrgyz and the Uzbeks on 16 June 2010 and UN airplanes with tents and other emergency aid started arriving in neighboring Uzbekistan. Russian government cargo airplanes carrying food and blankets also landed in Bishkek. According to the World Food Programme, it had enough food in Kyrgyzstan to feed 87,000 people for two months.

The clashes left some 300,000 people internally displaced and Uzbek leaders wanted the UN peacekeeping force to intervene because they did not trust the Kyrgyz forces any longer. Another 100,000 refugees crossed the border into Uzbekistan. Ethnic Uzbeks threatened to blow up an oil depot in Osh if they failed to get guarantees of protection. The United Nations said it believed that the attacks were "orchestrated, targeted and well-planned". Kyrgyz officials told the media that a person suspected to be behind the violence in Jalal-Abad had been detained.

On 2 August 2010, a Kyrgyz government commission began investigating the causes of the clashes. Members of the National Commission, led by former parliament speaker Abdygany Erkebaev, met with people from the predominantly ethnic Uzbek villages of Mady, Shark, and Kyzyl-Kyshtak in the Kara-Suu district of Osh Oblast. This National Commission, including representatives of many ethnic groups, was established by a presidential decree.

President Roza Otunbayeva also said in August 2010 that an international commission would also be formed to investigate the clashes.

The commission's report, released in January 2011, concluded that the events in southern Kyrgyzstan constituted a “planned, large-scale provocation, oriented towards the splitting of Kyrgyzstan and disrupting the unity of its people.” Responsibility for this provocation was seen as lying with “nationalistically-minded leaders of the Uzbek community”. The report was perceived as politically motivated. It was criticised as "vague and superficial" by one of its members, and a Member of Parliament threatened to sue the commission on the grounds that the report affected his honour and dignity.

In the aftermath of the turmoil, on 5 August 2010, Kyrgyz forces arrested party leader Urmat Baryktabasov on suspicion of plotting an overthrow of the government, after troops allegedly fired blank rounds into a crowd trying to join mass demonstrations near the Parliament in the capital Bishkek. Acting President Roza Otunbayeva said security forces seized firearms and grenades from him and 26 supporters.

In the whole, the countries of the Middle East and the Central Asia went different ways. Iran continued to go upon the way of the Islamic revolution, in Afghanistan there was a war almost all the time, the post-Soviet countries of the Central Asia had interiorconflicts because of national grounds.

The Islamic countries demonstrated different ways of development in this period. Some of them were closer to the West and to the Western standards of democracy, another - ruled by autoritarian regimes. The growth of Islamism was a big problem in this time. The foreign, especially US American intrusion, prevented the peaceful development in some countries.

Questions:

1. Describe the development of the Turkey in this time.

2. What main features were in the development of the post-Soviet Islamic countries?

3. What is common and different in the history of the Arabic countries in this time.

4. Compare the development of Iran and Afghanistan in this period.

 62. Africa from 1990 till now.

North Africa:

Algeria:

The fundamentalist Islamic Salvation Front (Front Islamique du Salut; FIS) won the largest number of votes in the country's first-ever parliamentary elections in Dec. 1991. Among the scores of parties that sprang up under the new constitution, the militant Islamic Salvation Front (FIS) was the most successful, winning more than 50% of all votes cast in municipal elections in June 1990 as well as in first stage of national legislative elections held in December 1991. The fundamentalist response has resulted in a continuous low-grade civil conflict with the secular state apparatus, which nonetheless has allowed elections featuring pro-government and moderate religious-based parties.

To thwart the electoral results, the army canceled the general election, which plunged the country into a bloody civil war. An estimated 100,000 people have been massacred by Islamic terrorists since war began in Jan. 1992. The undeclared civil war escalated in its brutality and senselessness in 1997–1998. Islamic extremists, who had originally focused their attacks on government officials and then shifted to intellectuals and journalists, abandoned political motivations entirely and targeted defenseless villagers. The mass slaughters were as savage as they were random, and the government was markedly ineffectual in stemming the violence.

Abdel-Aziz Bouteflika's ascension to the presidency in April 1999 was initially expected to bring peace and some economic improvement to this desperate war-torn country. Bouteflika, however, remains locked in power struggles with the military, whose support is crucial. Despite the appearance of democracy, Algeria remains in essence a military dictatorship. In 2001 violence by Islamic militants was again on the rise, and the long-disaffected Berber minority engaged in several large-scale protests.

The president also formed national commissions to study reforms of the education system, judiciary, and state bureaucracy. President Bouteflika was rewarded for his efforts at stabilizing the country when he was elected to another five-year term in April 2004, in an election contested by six candidates without military interference. In September 2005, another referendum -—this one to consider a proposed Charter for Peace and National Reconciliation—- passed by an overwhelming margin. The charter coupled another amnesty offer to all but the most violent participants in the Islamist uprising with an implicit pardon for security forces accused of abuses in fighting the rebels.

In April 2007, about 35 people were killed and hundreds wounded when suicide bombers attacked a government building in Algiers and a police station on the outskirts of the capital. Al-Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb claimed responsibility for the attack. The terrorist group struck again in December, killing as many as 60 people in two suicide attacks near UN offices and government buildings in the capital of Algeria. The bombings occur within minutes of each other. It was the worst attack in Algeria in more than 10 years.

In June 2008, President Bouteflika replaced Prime Minister Abdelaziz Belkhadem with Ahmed Ouyahia, who had served twice as premier. At least 43 people were killed in August 2008, when a suicide bomber drove an explosives-laden car into a police academy in Issers, a town in northern Algeria. The next day, two car bombs exploded simultaneously at a military command and a hotel in Bouira, killing a dozen people. No group takes responsibility for the attacks, but Algerian officials said they suspected Al-Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb was behind the bombings.

In November 2008, Parliament approved constitutional changes that allow President Bouteflika to run for a third term. The opposition criticized the move, calling it an assault on democracy. Bouteflika went on to win reelection in April 2009, taking more than 90% of the vote.

Libya:

Gaddafi assumed the honorific title of "King of Kings of Africa" in 2008 as part of his campaign for a United States of Africa. By the early 2010s, in addition to attempting to assume a leadership role in the African Union, Libya was also viewed as having formed closer ties with Italy, one of its former colonial rulers, than any other country in the European Union.The eastern parts of the country have been "ruined" due to Gaddafi's economic theories, according to The Economist.

Civil war and aftermath

After the Arab Spring movements overturned the rulers of Tunisia and Egypt, Libya experienced a full-scale revolt beginning on 17 February 2011. By 20 February, the unrest had spread to Tripoli. On 27 February 2011, the National Transitional Council was established to administer the areas of Libya under rebel control. On 10 March 2011, France became the first state to officially recognise the council as the legitimate representative of the Libyan people.

Pro-Gaddafi forces were able to respond militarily to rebel pushes in Western Libya and launched a counterattack along the coast toward Benghazi, the de facto centre of the uprising.The town of Zawiya, 48 kilometres (30 mi) from Tripoli, was bombarded by air force planes and army tanks and seized by Jamahiriya troops, "exercising a level of brutality not yet seen in the conflict."

Organs of the United Nations, including United Nations Secretary General Ban Ki-moon and the United Nations Human Rights Council, condemned the crackdown as violating international law, with the latter body expelling Libya outright in an unprecedented action urged by Libya's own delegation to the UN.

On 17 March 2011 the UN Security Council passed Resolution 1973 with a 10–0 vote and five abstentions. The resolution sanctioned the establishment of a no-fly zone and the use of "all means necessary" to protect civilians within Libya. On 19 March, the first Allied act to secure the no-fly zone began when French military jets entered Libyan airspace on a reconnaissance mission heralding attacks on enemy targets.

By 22 August 2011, rebel fighters had entered Tripoli and occupied Green Square, which they renamed Martyrs' Square in honour of those killed since 17 February 2011.

The "liberation" of Libya was celebrated on 23 October 2011. At least 30,000 Libyans died in the civil war.

On 7 July 2012, Libyans voted in their first parliamentary elections since the end of Gaddafi's rule. On 8 August 2012, the National Transitional Council officially handed power to the wholly elected General National Congress, which is tasked with the formation of an interim government and the drafting of a new Libyan Constitution to be approved in a general referendum.

On 25 August 2012, in what "appears to be the most blatant sectarian attack" since the end of the civil war, unnamed organized assailants bulldozed a Sufi mosque with graves, in broad daylight in the center of the Libyan capital Tripoli. It was the second such razing of a Sufi site in two days.

On 7 October 2012, Libya's Prime Minister-elect Mustafa A.G. Abushagur stepped down after failing a second time to win parliamentary approval for a new cabinet. On 14 October 2012, the General National Congress elected former GNC member and human rights lawyer Ali Zeidan as prime minister-designate. Zeidan will be sworn in after his cabinet has been approved by the GNC.

Islamist had successes also in other countries. Egyptian Mubarak was overthrown 2011. Sudan was divided into Sudan and South Sudan 2012. 2013 French forces invaded Mali, fighting the Islamist movement.

Ethiopia:

The Federal Democratic Republic (1991-present)

In July 1991, the EPRDF, the Oromo Liberation Front (OLF), and others established the Transitional Government of Ethiopia (TGE) which was composed of an 87-member Council of Representatives and guided by a national charter that functioned as a transitional constitution. In June 1992, the OLF withdrew from the government; in March 1993, members of the Southern Ethiopia Peoples' Democratic Coalition also left the government.

Eritrea separated from Ethiopia following the fall of the Derg in 1991, after a long independentist war.

In 1994, a new constitution was written that formed a bicameral legislature and a judicial system. An election took place in May 1995 in which Meles Zenawi was elected the Prime Minister and Negasso Gidada was elected President. Also at this time, the members of the Parliament were elected. Ethiopia's second multiparty election was held in May 2000. Prime Minister Meles was one again elected as Prime Minister in October 2000. In October 2001, Lieutenant Girma Wolde-Giorgis was elected president.

In 2005, during the general elections in Ethiopia, allegations of irregularities that brought victory to the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front resulted in widespread protests in which the government is accused of massacring civilians (see Ethiopian police massacres).

With the collapse of the Soviet Union, and with the rise of radical Islamism, Ethiopia again turned to the Western powers for alliance and assistance. After the September 11 attacks in 2001, the Ethiopian army began to train with US forces based out of the Combined Joint Task Force - Horn of Africa (CJTF-HOA) established in Djibouti, in counterterrorism and counterinsurgency. Ethiopia allowed the US to station military advisors at Camp Hurso.

In 2006, an Islamic organisation seen by many as having ties with al-Qaeda, the Islamic Courts Union (ICU), spread rapidly in Somalia. Ethiopia sent logistical support to the Transitional Federal Government opposing the Islamists. Finally, on December 20, 2006, active fighting broke out between the ICU and Ethiopian Army. As the Islamist forces were of no match against the Ethiopian regular army, they decided to retreat and merge among the civilians, and most of the ICU-held Somalia was quickly taken. Human Rights Watch accused Ethiopia of various abuses including indiscriminate killing of civilians during the Battle of Mogadishu (March – April 2007). Ethiopian forces pulled out of Somalia in January 2009, leaving a small African Union force and smaller Somali Transitional Government force to maintain the peace. Reports immediately emerged of religious fundamentalist forces occupying one of two former Ethiopian bases in Mogadishu shortly after withdrawal.

Central and South Africa.

The early 1990s also signaled the start of major clashes between the Hutus and the Tutsis in Rwanda and Burundi. In 1994 this culminated in the Rwandan Genocide, a conflict in which over 800,000 people were murdered.

South Africa:

In 1990 the National Party government took the first step towards dismantling discrimination when it lifted the ban on the African National Congress and other political organizations. It released Nelson Mandela from prison after twenty-seven years' serving a sentence for sabotage. A negotiation process followed. Ultimately, F. W. de Klerk negotiated with Nelson Mandela in 1993 for a transition of policies and government.The government repealed apartheid legislation. South Africa destroyed its nuclear arsenal and acceded to the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty. South Africa held its first universal elections in 1994, which the ANC won by an overwhelming majority. It has been in power ever since. The country rejoined the Commonwealth of Nations. The presidents were: 1994-1999 Nelson Mandela; 1999-2008 Thabo Mbeki; 2008-2009 Kgalema Motlanthe; from 2009--Jacob Zuma.

In post-apartheid South Africa, unemployment has been extremely high as the country has struggled with many changes. While many blacks have risen to middle or upper classes, the overall unemployment rate of blacks worsened between 1994 and 2003. Poverty among whites, previously rare, increased. In addition, the current government has struggled to achieve the monetary and fiscal discipline to ensure both redistribution of wealth and economic growth. Since the ANC-led government took power, the United Nations Human Development Index of South Africa has fallen, while it was steadily rising until the mid-1990s.Some may be attributed to the HIV/AIDS pandemic, and the failure of the government to take steps to address it in the early years.

In May 2008, riots left over sixty people dead.The Centre on Housing Rights and Evictions estimates over 100,000 people were driven from their homes. Migrants and refugees seeking asylum were the targets, but a third of the victims were South African citizens. In a 2006 survey, the South African Migration Project concluded that South Africans are more opposed to immigration than anywhere else in the world.The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees in 2008 reported over 200,000 refugees applied for asylum in South Africa, almost four times as many as the year before.These people were mainly from Zimbabwe, though many also come from Burundi, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Rwanda, Eritrea, Ethiopia and Somalia.Competition over jobs, business opportunities, public services and housing has led to tension between refugees and host communities. While xenophobia is still a problem, recent violence has not been as widespread as initially feared.

Zimbabwe (former Rhodesia) continued to be ruled by the President Mugabe. Following political negotiations in 2008 and 2009, the position of Prime Minister was restored, and the President again became solely the head of state.

In the whole, the Islamist forces were active in the North Africa in this period, which brought the change of power in many countries. In the Central and South Africa, liberated from the apartheid, the new independent countries had difficult times. AIDS became a problem in many African countries.

Questions:

1. Why the Islamist movements became active in the North Africa in this time?

2. Describe the main features of development of the Central and South African countries in this period.

63. India and neighbor countries from 1990 till now.

Pakistan:

In the 90-s Benazir Bhutto alternated power with Nawaz Sharif, as the country's political and economic situation worsened. Despite it, 1998 Pakistan became a nuclear power. Military tensions in the Kargil conflict with India were followed by a 1999 coup d'état in which General Pervez Musharraf assumed executive powers.

In 2001, Musharraf named himself President after the resignation of Rafiq Tarar. In the 2002 Parliamentary Elections, Musharraf transferred executive powers to newly elected Prime Minister Zafarullah Khan Jamali, who was succeeded in the 2004 by Shaukat Aziz. On 15 November 2007 the National Assembly completed its term and a caretaker government was appointed with the former Chairman of The Senate, Muhammad Mian Soomro as Prime Minister. Following the assassination of Benazir Bhutto, that resulted in a series of important political developments, her husband Asif Ali Zardari was eventually elected as the new President in 2008.

India:

Beginning in 1991, significant economic reforms have transformed India into the third largest and one of the fastest-growing economies in the world. Today, India is a major world power (a nuclear power from 1998) with a prominent voice in global affairs and is seeking a permanent seat in the United Nations Security Council. Many economists, military analysts and think tanks expect India to become a superpower in the near future.

Prime Minister P. V. Narasimha Rao (1991) was succeeded by Atal Bihari Vajpayee; the first Bharatiya Janata Party leader to take the position 16 May 1996, however the government fell after 13 days as BJP was unable to get the support from other parties. H. D. Deve Gowda and Inder Kumar Gujral, both from Janata Dal served at the post chronologically forming the United Front until reelection of Vajpayee in 1998 who formed the National Democratic Alliance (NDA) government for the first time. The government collapsed after thirteen months resulting in fresh polls in which Vajpayee was reelected for the third time. He served at the post till 22 May 2004 when Indian National Congress again came to power with Dr. Manmohan Singh assuming the post as the 13th Prime Minister, forming the United Progressive Alliance (UPA) government for the first time. Singh continued as prime minister following the 2009 general elections, and governs with the support of the UPA.

Presidents: Shankar Dayal Sharma (1992-97); Kocheril Raman Narayanan (1997-2002); A.P.J. Abdul Kalam (2002-2007); Smt. Pratibha Patil (2007-12), Patil is the first woman to become the President of India. She was also the first female Governor of Rajasthan; Pranab Mukherjee (from 2012 is an incumbent President of India.

Bangladesh:

Since 1990, Bangladesh has reverted to a parliamentary democracy. Zia's widow, Khaleda Zia, led the Bangladesh Nationalist Party to parliamentary victory at the general election in 1991, and became the first female Prime Minister in Bangladeshi history. However, the Awami League, headed by Sheikh Hasina, one of Mujib's surviving daughters, won the next election in 1996. It lost again to the Bangladesh Nationalist Party in 2001.

On 11 January 2007, following widespread political unrest spearheaded by the Awami League, the Bangladesh civil and military establishment supported the establishment of a neutral caretaker government. The caretaker government was appointed to administer the next general election. The country had suffered from extensive corruption, disorder and political violence. The caretaker government made it a priority to root out corruption from all levels of government. To this end, many notable politicians and officials, along with large numbers of lesser officials and party members, were arrested on corruption charges. The caretaker government held what it itself described as a largely free and fair election on 29 December 2008. The Awami League's Sheikh Hasina won with a landslide in the elections and took the oath of Prime Minister on 6 January 2009.

Nepal:

In 1991–92, Bhutan expelled roughly 100,000 Bhutanese citizens of Nepali descent, most of whom have been living in seven refugee camps in eastern Nepal ever since.

In 1996, the Communist Party of Nepal (Maoist) started a bid to replace the royal parliamentary system with a people's socialist republic by violent means. This led to the long Nepal Civil War and more than 12,000 deaths. On 1 June 2001, there was a massacre in the royal palace. King Birendra, Queen Aiswarya, and seven other members of the royal family were killed. The perpetrator was Crown Prince Dipendra, who committed suicide (he died three days later) shortly thereafter. This outburst was alleged to have been Dipendra's response to his parents' refusal to accept his choice of wife. Nevertheless there are speculation and doubts among Nepalese citizens about who was responsible.

Following the carnage, Birendra's brother Gyanendra inherited the throne. On 1 February 2005, Gyanendra dismissed the entire government and assumed full executive powers to quash the violent Maoist movement, but this initiative was unsuccessful because a stalemate had developed where the Maoists were firmly entrenched in large expanses of countryside yet could not dislodge the military from numerous towns and the largest cities. In September 2005, the Maoists declared a three-month unilateral ceasefire to negotiate.

In response to the 2006 democracy movement King Gyanendra agreed to relinquish sovereign power to the people. On 24 April 2006 the dissolved House of Representatives was reinstated. Using its newly acquired sovereign authority, on 18 May 2006 the House of Representatives unanimously voted to curtail the power of the king and declared Nepal a secular state, ending its time-honoured official status as a Hindu Kingdom. On 28 December 2007, a bill was passed in parliament to amend Article 159 of the constitution – replacing "Provisions regarding the King" by "Provisions of the Head of the State" – declaring Nepal a federal republic, and thereby abolishing the monarchy. The bill came into force on 28 May 2008.

Republic

The Communist Party of Nepal (Maoist) won the largest number of seats in the Constituent Assembly election held on 10 April 2008, and formed a coalition government which included most of the parties in the CA. Although acts of violence occurred during the pre-electoral period, election observers noted that the elections themselves were markedly peaceful and "well-carried out".

The newly elected Assembly met in Kathmandu on 28 May 2008, and, after a polling of 564 constituent Assembly members, 560 voted to form a new government, with the monarchist Rastriya Prajatantra Party, which had four members in the assembly, registering a dissenting note. At that point, it was declared that Nepal had become a secular and inclusive democratic republic, with the government announcing a three-day public holiday from 28 to 30 May.The King was thereafter given 15 days to vacate the Narayanhiti Royal Palace, to re-open it as a public museum.

Nonetheless, political tensions and consequent power-sharing battles have continued in Nepal. In May 2009, the Maoist-led government was toppled and another coalition government with all major political parties barring the Maoists was formed. Madhav Kumar Nepal of the Communist Party of Nepal (Unified Marxist-Leninist) was made the Prime Minister of the coalition government. In February 2011 the Madhav Kumar Nepal Government was toppled and Jhala Nath Khanal of the Communist Party of Nepal (Unified Marxist-Leninist) was made the Prime Minister.In August 2011 the Jhala Nath Khanal Government was toppled and Baburam Bhattarai of the Communist Party of Nepal (Maoist) was made the Prime Minister.

Bhutan:

In 1999, the government lifted a ban on television and the Internet, making Bhutan one of the last countries to introduce television. In his speech, the King said that television was a critical step to the modernisation of Bhutan as well as a major contributor to the country's Gross National Happiness (Bhutan is the only country to measure happiness), but warned that the "misuse" of television could erode traditional Bhutanese values.

A new constitution was presented in early 2005. In December 2005, King Jigme Singye Wangchuck announced that he would abdicate the throne in his son's favor in 2008. On 14 December 2006, he announced that he would be abdicating immediately. This was followed by the first national parliamentary elections in December 2007 and March 2008.

On November 6, 2008, 28-year-old Jigme Khesar Namgyel Wangchuck, eldest son of King Jigme Singye Wangchuck, was crowned King.

Burma:

In May 1990, the government held free elections for the first time in almost 30 years and the National League for Democracy (NLD), the party of Aung San Suu Kyi, won 392 out of a total 489 seats (i.e., 80% of the seats). However, the military junta refused to cede power and continued to rule the nation as SLORC until 1997, and then as the State Peace and Development Council (SPDC) until its dissolution in March 2011.

On 23 June 1997, Burma was admitted into the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). On 27 March 2006, the military junta, which had moved the national capital from Yangon to a site near Pyinmana in November 2005, officially named the new capital Naypyidaw, meaning "city of the kings".

In August 2007, an increase in the price of diesel and petrol led to a series of anti-government protests that were dealt with harshly by the government. The protests then became a campaign of civil resistance (also called the Saffron Revolution), led by Buddhist monks, hundreds of whom defied the house arrest of democracy advocate Aung San Suu Kyi to pay their respects at the gate of her house. The government finally cracked down on them on 26 September 2007. The crackdown was harsh, with reports of barricades at the Shwedagon Pagoda and monks killed. However, there were also rumours of disagreement within the Burmese armed forces, but none was confirmed. The military crackdown against unarmed Saffron Revolution protesters was widely condemned as part of the International reaction to the 2007 Burmese anti-government protests and led to an increase in economic sanctions against the Burmese Government.

In May 2008, Cyclone Nargis caused extensive damage in the densely populated, rice-farming delta of the Irrawaddy Division. It was the worst natural disaster in Burmese history with reports of an estimated 200,000 people dead or missing, and damage totaled to 10 billion dollars (USD), and as many as 1 million left homeless.[62] In the critical days following this disaster, Burma's isolationist government hindered recovery efforts by delaying the entry of United Nations planes delivering medicine, food, and other supplies.

In early August 2009, a conflict known as the Kokang incident broke out in Shan State in northern Burma. For several weeks, junta troops fought against ethnic minorities including the Han Chinese, Va, and Kachin. From 8–12 August, the first days of the conflict, as many as 10,000 Burmese civilians fled to Yunnan province in neighbouring China.

Reforms and transition towards democracy

The Burmese constitutional referendum, 2008, promising a "discipline-flourishing democracy", was held on 10 May 2008 and the name of the country was changed from the Union of Myanmar to the Republic of the Union of Myanmar. General elections were held under the new constitution in 2010. Observers described the election day of 2010 as mostly peaceful, though there were alleged irregularities in polling stations and the United Nations and Western countries condemned the elections as fraudulent. The official turnout was reported as 77%. The military-backed Union Solidarity and Development Party declared victory stating that it had won 80% of the votes. That claim was widely disputed by pro-democracy opposition groups, which asserted that the military regime engaged in rampant fraud to achieve its result.[69] The military junta was dissolved on 30 March 2011.

Since the elections, the government has embarked on a series of reforms toward liberal democracy, mixed economy, and reconciliation although the motives of such reforms are still debated. These reforms include the release of pro-democracy leader Aung San Suu Kyi from house arrest, establishment of the National Human Rights Commission, general amnesties of more than 200 political prisoners, institution of new labour laws that allow labour unions and strikes, relaxation of press censorship and regulations of currency practices. The reforms come as a surprise to many because the election of 2010 was considered fraudulent by the international community.

The consequences of the reforms are far-reaching. The ASEAN members have approved Burma's bid for ASEAN chair in 2014. United States Secretary of State Hillary Clinton visited Burma in December 2011 to encourage further progress, the first visit by a Secretary of State in more than fifty years. Clinton met with Burmese president Thein Sein as well as opposition leader Daw Aung San Suu Kyi. Domestically, Aung San Suu Kyi's party, National League for Democracy was permitted to participate in the by-election after the government abolished laws that led to NLD's boycott. However, uncertainties exist as more than 1,600 political prisoners are not yet released and the clashes between Burmese Army and local insurgent groups continue.

The 1 April election was perhaps the most promising moment of reform. Led by Aung San Suu Kyi, the National League for Democracy won 43 of 45 seats available in the election. Although only a small fraction of the seats were up for a vote, the previously illegal NLD was allowed to campaign, run, and win for the first time. Also a first, international election monitors were allowed to monitor the voting. Despite such positive strides, the NLD has reported over 50 instances of voting irregularities on election day as well as a campaign of fraud and harassment leading up to the election.

In 2012 ongoing conflicts in Burma included the Kachin Conflict between the Kachin Independence Army and the government, the Rohingya in Arakan State, as well as the Shan, Lahu and Karen minority groups in the eastern half of the country.

An estimated 90,000 people have been displaced in the recent sectarian violence between Rohingya Muslims and Buddhists in Burma's western Rakhine State.

Sri Lanka:

1998 Temple of the Tooth attack. Tamil Tiger bomb a sacred Buddhist temple resulting in 17 deaths.

In 2002, the Sri Lankan government and LTTE signed a Norwegian-mediated ceasefire agreement.

The 2004 Asian tsunami killed over 35,000 in Sri Lanka. From 1985 to 2006, Sri Lankan government and Tamil insurgents held four rounds of peace talks without success. Both LTTE and the government resumed fighting in 2006, and the government officially backed out of the ceasefire in 2008. In 2009, under the Presidency of Mahinda Rajapaksa the Sri Lanka Armed Forces defeated the LTTE, and re-established control of the entire country by the Sri Lankan Government. Overall, between 60,000 and 100,000 people were killed during the 26 years of conflict.

40,000 Tamil civilians may have been killed in the final phases of the Sri Lankan civil war, according to an Expert Panel convened by U.N. Secretary General Ban Ki-moon. The exact number of Tamils killed is still a speculation that needs further study. Following the LTTE's defeat, the Tamil National Alliance, the largest political party in Sri Lanka, dropped its demand for a separate state in favour of a federal solution. The final stages of the war left some 294,000 people displaced. According to the Ministry of Resettlement, most of the displaced persons had been released or returned to their places of origin, leaving only 6,651 in the camps as of December 2011. In May 2010, President Rajapaksa appointed the Lessons Learnt and Reconciliation Commission (LLRC) to assess the conflict between the time of the ceasefire agreement in 2002 and the defeat of the LTTE in 2009. Sri Lanka has emerged from its 26-year war to become one of the fastest growing economies of the world.

In the whole, the countries of the sub-continent developed dynamically in this time. India and Pakistan became nuclear powers, India became the 3rd in the world according to the BNP. Despite it, there were many problems in the development of these countries, the Muslim-Hindu conflict and the overpopulation continued to be the causes of worry.

b) Indochina and Indonesia.

Thailand:

Thereafter the country remained a democracy apart from a brief period of military rule from 1991 to 1992. Recently, Thailand also has been an active member in the regional Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), especially after democratic rule was restored in 1992.

The populist Thai Rak Thai party, led by prime minister Thaksin Shinawatra, came to power in 2001. He was popular with the urban, sububan and rural poor for his populist social programs, his rule came under attack from the elite who saw danger in his parliamentary dictatorship. Also in mid-2005, Sondhi Limthongkul, a well-known media tycoon, became the foremost Thaksin critic. Eventually Sondhi and his allies developed the movement into a mass protest and later unified under the name of People's Alliance for Democracy (PAD).

On 19 September 2006, after the dissolution of the parliament, Thaksin then became head of a provisional government. While he was in New York for a meeting of the UN, Army Commander-in-Chief Lieutenant General Sonthi Boonyaratglin launched the bloodless September 2006 Thailand military coup d'état supported by anti-Thaksin elements in civil society and among the Democrat Party. A general election on 23 December 2007 restored a civilian government, led by Samak Sundaravej of the People's Power Party, as a successor to Thai Rak Thai.

In mid-2008, the People's Alliance for Democracy (PAD) led large protests against the government of Prime Minister Samak Sundaravej, whom they criticized for his ties to former Prime Minister Thaksin Shinawatra. On 26 August 2008, the protesters illegally occupied several government ministries, including the Government House which they sacked, to force the government to give in to demands. Beginning 29 August, protesters disrupted air and rail infrastructure, including Suvarnabhumi airport. They have never been prosecuted. The chaos ended in December when three of the parties that formed the government were dissolved by the Constitutional Court for election fraud. After this decision, many previous coalition partners of the government then defected and joined the main opposition party, the Democrat party, and refusing elections to immediately form a new government in the favour of the old guard elites. On 3 July 2011, opposition Pheu Thai Party won general elections in a landslide.

Laos:

In the 1990s the communist party gave up centralised management of the economy but still has a monopoly of political power. Thongsing Thammavong is the acting Prime Minister of Laos (from 2010).

Cambodia:

22'000 UN troops ensured in 1993 the first free election in Cambodia. King Norodom Sihanouk became King of Cambodia for the second time. 2004 he abdicated and died 2012. His son Norodom Sihamoni is a king from 2004.

Malaysia:

In the late 1990s the Asian financial crisis almost caused the collapse of the currency and the stock and property markets.

Singapore:

In 1990, Goh Chok Tong succeeded Lee as Prime Minister. During his tenure the country faced the 1997 Asian Financial Crisis, the 2003 SARS outbreak and terrorist threats posed by Jemaah Islamiyah. In 2004, Lee Hsien Loong, the eldest son of Lee Kuan Yew, became the country's third prime minister.

Brunei:

Brunei regained its independence from the United Kingdom on 1 January 1984. Economic growth during the 1970s and 1990s, averaging 56% from 1999 to 2008, has transformed Brunei Darussalam into a newly industrialised country.

Indonesia:

Indonesia was the country hardest hit by the late 1990s Asian financial crisis. This led to popular protest against the New Order which led to Suharto's resignation in May 1998. In 1999, East Timor voted to secede from Indonesia, after a twenty-five-year military occupation that was marked by international condemnation of repression of the East Timorese. Since Suharto's resignation, a strengthening of democratic processes has included a regional autonomy program, and the first direct presidential election in 2004. Political and economic instability, social unrest, corruption, and terrorism slowed progress, however, in the last five years the economy has performed strongly. Although relations among different religious and ethnic groups are largely harmonious, sectarian discontent and violence has occurred. A political settlement to an armed separatist conflict in Aceh was achieved in 2005.

After Suharto the presidents of Indonesia were: Bacharuddin Jusuf Habibie (1998-1999, party Golkar);

Abdurrahman Wahid (1999- 2001, National Awakening Party); the first woman President Megawati Sukarnoputri (2001- 2004, Indonesian Democratic Party – Struggle); Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono ( from 2004, Democratic Party).

Philippine:

The economy improved during the administration of Fidel V. Ramos, who was elected president in 1992. However, the economic improvements were negated with the onset of the East Asian financial crisis in 1997. In 2001, amid charges of corruption and a stalled impeachment process, Ramos' successor Joseph Estrada was ousted from the presidency by the 2001 EDSA Revolution and replaced by Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo. Her administration that lasted 9 years was tied with graft and corruption and numerous political scandals. As a result of the May 2010 elections, Benigno "Noynoy" Aquino III was elected president.

In the whole, the countries of Indochina and Indonesia, both Buddhist and Muslim, went different ways in this time. In the most of them democracy had victory.

c) Australia and Oceania

Australia:

During his time in office, Keating (from 1991) emphasised links to the Asia Pacific region, co-operating closely with the Indonesian President, Suharto, and campaigned to increase the role of APEC as a major forum for economic co-operation. Keating was active in indigenous affairs and the High Court of Australia's historic Mabo decision in 1992 required a legislative response to recognition of Indigenous title to land, culminating in the Native Title Act 1993 and the Land Fund Act 1994. In 1993, Keating established a Republic Advisory Committee, to examine options for Australia becoming a republic.

The Monarchy in Australia survived the close of the 20th century however, with the successor Howard Government (itself divided on the question of a republic) holding a 1998 Constitutional Convention to discuss the change, but a subsequent 1999 referendum to establish a republic was marginally rejected.

Economy

Hawke and Keating abandoned traditional Labor support for tariffs to protect industry and jobs. They moved to deregulate Australia's financial system and 'floated' the Australian dollar. After the initial failure of the Whitlam model and partial dismantling under Fraser, Hawke re-established a new, universal system of health insurance called Medicare.

Unemployment reached 11.4% in 1992 – the highest since the Great Depression. The Liberal-National Opposition had proposed an ambitious plan of economic reform to take to the 1993 Election, including the introduction of a Goods and Services Tax. Keating shuffled treasurers, campaigned strongly against the tax, and won the 1993 Election.

With foreign debt, interest rates and unemployment still high, and after a series of ministerial resignations, Keating lost the 1996 Election to the Liberals' John Howard.

Howard government: 1996–2007

John Howard with a Liberal–National Party coalition served as Prime Minister from 1996 until 2007, the second-longest prime ministerial term after Menzies. One of the first programs instigated by the Howard government was a nationwide gun control scheme, following a mass shooting at Port Arthur. The government also introduced industrial relations reforms, particularly as regards efficiency on the waterfront. After the 1996 election, Howard and treasurer Peter Costello proposed a Goods and Services Tax (GST) which they successfully took to the electorate in 1998.

Australia hosted the 2000 Summer Olympics in Sydney to great international acclaim. The Opening Ceremony featured a host of iconic Australian imagery and history and the flame ceremony honoured women athletes, including swimmer Dawn Fraser, with Aboriginal runner Cathy Freeman lit the Olympic Flame.

Foreign policy

 Aboriginal dancers perform at the 2000 Summer Olympics opening ceremony in Sydney.

In 1999, Australia led a United Nations force into East Timor to help establish democracy and independence for that nation, following political violence. Australia committed to a number of other peacekeeping and stabilisation operations: notably in Bougainville, including Operation Bel Isi (1998–2003); as well as Operation Helpem Fren and the Australian-led Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands (RAMSI) in the early 2000s; and the 2006 East Timorese crisis.

The Howard government expanded immigration overall but instituted often controversial tough immigration laws to discourage unauthorised arrivals of boat people. While Howard was a strong supporter of traditional links to the Commonwealth and to the United States alliance, trade with Asia, particularly China, continued to increase dramatically, and Australia endured an extended period of prosperity. Howard's term in office coincided with the 2001 11 September Terrorist Attacks. In the aftermath of this event, the government committed troops to the Afghanistan War (with bi-partisan support) and the Iraq War (meeting with the disapproval of other political parties).

21st century

The Labor Party's Kevin Rudd defeated Howard at the 2007 election, and Rudd held the office until June 2010, when he was replaced as the leader of the party. Rudd used his term in office to symbolically ratify the Kyoto Protocol and lead an historic parliamentary apology to the Stolen Generation (those Indigenous Australians who had been removed from their parents by the state during the early 20th century to the 1960s). The mandarin Chinese speaking former diplomat also pursued energetic foreign policy and initially sought to instigate a price on carbon in the Australian economy to combat global warming. His prime ministership coincided with the initial phases of the Financial crisis of 2007–2010, to which his government responded through a large package of economic stimulus – the management of which later proved to be controversial.

Following two and half decades of economic reform and amidst booming trade with Asia, Australia avoided recession following the collapse of financial markets, in stark contrast to most other Western economies.

The Labor Party replaced Rudd with Julia Gillard in 2010, and Gillard became the first woman prime minister in Australian history. Following the 2010 Election, Labor secured office in the first hung parliament since the 1940 election.

New Zealand:

Continuing reform under National

Voters unhappy with the rapid speed and far-reaching extent of reforms elected a National government in 1990, led by Jim Bolger. However the new government continued the economic reforms of the previous Labour government, in what was known as Ruthanasia. Unhappy with what seemed to be a pattern of governments failing to reflect the mood of the electorate, New Zealanders in 1992 and 1993 voted to change the electoral system to Mixed Member Proportional (MMP), a form of proportional representation. New Zealand's first MMP election was held in 1996. Following the election National was returned to power in coalition with the New Zealand First Party.

John Key and Helen Clark

With the end of the Cold War in 1991, the nation's foreign policy turned increasingly to issues of its nuclear-free status and other military issues; its adjustment to neoliberalism in international trade relations; and its involvement in humanitarian, environmental, and other matters of international diplomacy.

21st century

The Fifth Labour government led by Helen Clark was elected in 1999. It maintained most of the previous governments' economic reforms — restricting government intervention in the economy much more so than previous governments — while putting more of an emphasis on social policy and outcomes. For example, employment law was modified to give more protection to workers, and the student loan system was changed to eliminate interest payments for New Zealand resident students and graduates. Helen Clark's Labour government remained in power for nine years before being replaced in 2008 by New Zealand's Fifth National government led by John Key.

New Zealand retains strong but informal links to Britain, with many young New Zealanders travelling to Britain for their "OE" (overseas experience) due to favourable working visa arrangements with Britain. Despite New Zealand's immigration liberalisation in the 1980s, Britons are still the largest group of migrants to New Zealand, due in part to recent immigration law changes which privilege fluent speakers of English. A few constitutional links to Britain remain — the New Zealand Sovereign is a British resident, for example. However, British imperial honours were discontinued in 1996, the Governor-General has taken a more active role in representing New Zealand overseas, and appeals from the Court of Appeal to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council were replaced by a local Supreme Court of New Zealand in 2003. From time to time there is public debate about whether New Zealand should become a republic, and public sentiment is divided on the issue.

Foreign policy has been essentially independent since the mid-1980s. Under Labour Prime Minister Clark, 2000-2008, foreign policy reflected the priorities of liberal internationalism. She stressed the promotion of democracy and human rights; the strengthening of the role of the United Nations; the advancement of antimilitarism and disarmament; and the encouragement of free trade. She sent troops to the Afghanistan War, but did not contribute combat troops to the Iraq War although some medical and engineering units were sent.

John Key led the National Party to victory in both the November 2008 and the November 2011 general elections. Key leads the Fifth National Government of New Zealand which entered government at the beginning of the late-2000s recession in 2008. In his first term, Key's government implemented a GST rise and personal tax cuts. In February 2011, a major earthquake in Christchurch, the nation's second largest city, significantly impacted the national economy and the government formed the Canterbury Earthquake Recovery Authority in response. In its second term, Key's government announced a policy of partial privatisation of state-owned assets. In foreign policy, Key announced the withdrawal of New Zealand Defence Force personnel from their deployment in the war in Afghanistan, signed the Wellington Declaration with the United States and pushed for more nations to join the Trans-Pacific Strategic Economic Partnership.

Tourism and agriculture are now the major industries that contribute to New Zealand's economy. The traditional agricultural products of meat, dairy and wool has been supplemented by other products such as fruit, wine and timber.

Oceania:

Modern age

Fiji and Tonga became independent in 1970, with many other nations following in the 1970s and 1980s. The South Pacific Forum was founded in 1971, which became the Pacific Islands Forum in 2000. Bougainville Island, geographically part of the Solomon Islands but politically part of Papua New Guinea, tried unsuccessfully to become independent in 1975, and a civil war followed in the early 1990s, with it later being granted autonomy.

In 1852, French Polynesia was granted partial internal autonomy; in 1984, the autonomy was extended. French Polynesia became a full overseas collectivity of France in 2004.

French nuclear testing in the Pacific was controversial in the 1980s, in 1985 French agents caused the Sinking of the Rainbow Warrior in Auckland to prevent it from arriving at the test site in Moruroa. In September 1995, France stirred up widespread protests by resuming nuclear testing at Fangataufa atoll after a three-year moratorium. The last test was on 27 January 1996. On 29 January 1996, France announced that it would accede to the Comprehensive Test Ban Treaty, and no longer test nuclear weapons.

East Timor declared independence from Portugal in 1975, but was invaded by Indonesia, before it was granted full independence in 2002.

Fiji has had a troubled recent history with coups in 1987, 2000 and 2006.

Between 2001 and 2007 Australia's Pacific Solution policy transferred asylum seekers to several Pacific nations, including the Nauru detention centre. Australia, New Zealand and other nations took part in the Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands from 2003 after a request for aid.

In the whole, Australia and neighbor countries had period of economic growth in this time.

Questions:

1. Describe the history of India in this time.
2. What were the main problems in the history of Indochina?
3. Compare the development of Australia and New Zealand in this time.

64. China and neighbor countries from 1990 till now.

a) China and neighbor countries.

PRC:

5 period: 1989–2002: Economic growth under the third generation

After Tiananmen, Deng Xiaoping retired from public view. He died 1997. While keeping ultimate control, power was passed onto the third generation of leadership led by Jiang Zemin, who was hailed as its "core". XIVth Party congress was held 1992, XVth – 1997.

Economic growth, despite foreign trade embargoes, returned to a fast pace by the mid-1990s. Jiang's macroeconomic reforms furthered Deng's vision for "Socialism with Chinese Characteristics". At the same time, Jiang's period saw a continued rise in social corruption in all areas of life. Unemployment skyrocketed as unprofitable SOE's were closed to make way for more competitive ventures, internally and abroad. The ill-equipped social welfare system was put on a serious test. Jiang also laid heavy emphasis on scientific and technological advancement in areas such as space exploration. To sustain vast human consumption, the Three Gorges Dam was built, attracting supporters and widespread criticism. Environmental pollution became a very serious problem as Beijing was frequently hit by sandstorm as a result of desertification.

The 1990s saw two foreign colonies returned to China, Hong Kong from Britain in 1997, and Macau from Portugal in 1999. Hong Kong and Macau mostly continued their own governance, retaining independence in their economic, social, and judicial systems.

Jiang and President Clinton exchanged state visits, but Sino-American relations took very sour turns at the end of the decade. On May 7, 1999, during the Kosovo War, US aircraft bombed the Chinese embassy in Belgrade. The U.S. government claimed the strike was due to bad intelligence and false target identification.

Inside the US, the Cox Report stated that China had been stealing various top US military secrets.

In 2001, a Chinese fighter jet collided with a US surveillance plane over international waters near Hainan, inciting further outrage with the Chinese public, already dissatisfied with the US.

On the political agenda, China was once again put on the spotlight for the banning of public Falun Gong activity in 1999. Silent protesters from the spiritual movement sat outside of Zhongnanhai, asking for dialogue with China's leaders. Jiang saw it as threatening to the political situation and outlawed the group altogether, while using the mass media to denounce it as an evil cult.

Conversely, Premier Zhu Rongji's economic policies held China's economy strong during the Asian Financial Crisis. Economic growth averaged at 8% annually, pushed back by the 1998 Yangtze River Floods. After a decade of talks, China was finally admitted into the World Trade Organization. Standards of living improved significantly, although a wide urban-rural wealth gap was opened, as China saw the reappearance of the middle class. Wealth disparity between East and the Western hinterlands continued to widen by the day, prompting government programs to "develop the West", taking on such ambitious projects such as the Qinghai-Tibet Railway. The burden of education was greater than ever. Rampant corruption continued despite Premier Zhu's anti-corruption campaign that executed many officials.

6th period: 2002–2012.

XVIth Party congress was held 2002, XVIIth -2007.

The first major crisis faced by China in the 21st century as a new generation of leaders led by Hu Jintao after assuming power was the public health crisis involving SARS, an illness that seemed to have originated out of Guangdong province. The first Chinese taikonaut Yang Liwei was launched 2003.

China's position in the war on terror drew the country closer diplomatically to the United States. The economy continues to grow in double-digit numbers as the development of rural areas became the major focus of government policy. In gradual steps to consolidate his power, Hu Jintao removed Shanghai Party Chief Chen Liangyu and other potential political opponents amidst the fight against corruption, and the on-going struggle against once powerful Shanghai clique. The assertion of the Scientific Perspective to create a Socialist Harmonious Society is the focus of the Hu-Wen administration, as some Jiang-era excesses are slowly reversed. In the years after Hu's rise to power, respect of basic human rights in China continue to be a source of concern in the West. The law about the private property was accepted 2007.

The political status and future of Taiwan remain uncertain, but steps have been taken to improving relations between the Communist Party and several of Taiwan's parties that hold a less antagonistic view towards China, notably former rival Kuomintang.

The continued economic growth of the country as well as its sporting power status gained China the right to host the 2008 Summer Olympics. However, this also put Hu's administration under intense spotlight. While the 2008 Olympic was commonly understood to be a come-out party for People's Republic of China, in light of the March 2008 Tibet protests, the government received heavy scrutiny. The Olympic torch was met with protest en route. Within the country these reactions were met with a fervent wave of nationalism with accusations of Western bias against China.

In May 2008, a massive earthquake registering 8.0 on the Richter scale hit Sichuan province of China, exacting a death toll officially estimated at approximately 70,000. The government responded more quickly than it did with previous events, and has allowed foreign media access to the regions that were hit the hardest. The adequacy of the government response was generally praised, and the relief efforts extended to every corner of Chinese life. In May and June 2008, heavy rains in southern China caused severe flooding in the provinces of Anhui, Hunan, Jiangxi, Fujian and Guangdong, with dozens of fatalities and over a million people forced to evacuate.

2009 there were unrests in the Xinjiang province.

The new, XVIIIth Party congress (2012), possibly, opens the 7th period, which will last till 2022. The leadership of the country and the party remained the same.

Taiwan:

Democratic reforms continued in the 1990s, with Lee Teng-hui re-elected in 1996, in the first direct presidential election in the history of the ROC. During the later years of Lee's administration, he was involved in corruption controversies relating to government release of land and weapons purchase, although no legal proceedings commenced. In 2000, Chen Shui-bian of the Democratic Progressive Party was elected as the first non-Kuomintang (KMT) President and was re-elected to serve his second and last term since 2004. Polarized politics has emerged in Taiwan with the formation of the Pan-Blue Coalition of parties led by the KMT, favoring eventual Chinese reunification, and the Pan-Green Coalition of parties led by the DPP, favoring an eventual and official declaration of Taiwan independence.

On 30 September 2007, the ruling DPP approved a resolution asserting a separate identity from China and called for the enactment of a new constitution for a "normal country". It also called for general use of "Taiwan" as the country's name, without abolishing its formal name, the Republic of China. The Chen administration also pushed for referendums on national defense and UN entry in the 2004 and 2008 elections, which failed due to voter turnout below the required legal threshold of 50% of all registered voters. The Chen administration was dogged by public concerns over reduced economic growth, legislative gridlock due to a pan-blue, opposition-controlled Legislative Yuan and corruption involving the First Family as well as government officials.

The KMT increased its majority in the Legislative Yuan in the January 2008 legislative elections, while its nominee Ma Ying-jeou went on to win the presidency in March of the same year, campaigning on a platform of increased economic growth, and better ties with the PRC under a policy of "mutual nondenial". Ma took office on 20 May 2008, the same day that President Chen Shui-bian stepped down and was notified by prosecutors of possible corruption charges. Part of the rationale for campaigning for closer economic ties with the PRC stem from the strong economic growth China attained since joining the World Trade Organization. However, some analysts say that despite the election of Ma Ying-jeou, the diplomatic and military tensions with the PRC have not been reduced. Despite it, 2012 he was re-elected for the second term.

Mongolia:

A new constitution was introduced in 1992, and the "People's Republic" was dropped from the country's name. The transition to market economy was often rocky. The early 1990s saw high inflation and food shortages. The first election wins for non-communist parties came in 1993 (presidential elections) and 1996 (parliamentary elections). The signing of the Oyu Tolgoi mine contract is considered a major milestone in modern Mongolian history. The Mongolian People's Revolutionary Party renamed itself the Mongolian People's Party in 2010.

North Korea:

In the late 1990s, with the South having transitioned to liberal democracy, the success of the Nordpolitik policy, and power in the North having been taken up by Kim Il-sung's son Kim Jong-il (1994), the two nations began to engage publicly for the first time, with the South declaring its Sunshine Policy.

Early 21st century

In January 2002, U.S. president George W. Bush labeled North Korea part of an "axis of evil" and an "outpost of tyranny". The highest-level contact the government has had with the United States was with U.S. Secretary of State Madeleine Albright, who made a visit to Pyongyang in 2000, but the two countries do not have formal diplomatic relations. By 2006, approximately 37,000 American soldiers remained in South Korea, although by June 2009 this number had fallen to around 30,000. Kim Jong-il privately stated his acceptance of U.S. troops on the peninsula, even after a possible reunification. Publicly, North Korea strongly demands the removal of American troops from South Korea.

On June 13, 2009, the Associated Press reported that in response to new U.N. sanctions, North Korea declared it would progress with its uranium enrichment program. This marked the first time the DPRK has publicly acknowledged that it is conducting a uranium enrichment program. In August 2009, former U.S. president Bill Clinton met with Kim Jong-il to secure the release of two American journalists, who had been sentenced for entering the country illegally. Current U.S. President Barack Obama's position towards North Korea has been to resist making deals with North Korea for the sake of defusing tension, a policy known as "strategic patience."

On November 23, 2010, North Korea fired about 170 rounds of artillery on Yeonpyeong Island and the surrounding waters near the Yellow Sea border, with some 90 shells landing on the island. The attack resulted in the deaths of two marines and two civilians on the South Korean side, and fifteen marines and at least three civilians wounded. South Korean forces fired back 80 shells, although the results remain unclear. North Korean news sources alleged that the North Korean actions, described as "a prompt and powerful physical strike", were in response to provocation from South Korea that had held an artillery exercise in the disputed waters south of the island.

On the December 17, 2011 the Supreme Leader of North Korea, Kim Jong-il died from a heart attack. His death was reported by the Korean Central News Agency around 08:30 local time with the newscaster announcing his youngest son Kim Jong-un as his successor.

The announcement placed South Korean and United States troops on high alert, with many politicians from the global community stating that Kim's death leaves a great deal of uncertainty in the country's future. North Korea was put into a state of semi-alert, with foreigners put under suspicion and asked to leave.

On January 24, 2013, North Korea announced its intentions to target the United States in its missile and nuclear programs. The statement called the United States, the "sworn enemy of the Korean people".

Estimates based on the most recent North Korean census suggest that 240,000 to 420,000 people died as a result of the 1990s famine and that there were 600,000 to 850,000 unnatural deaths in North Korea from 1993 to 2008.

Tensions continue to this day, but the political arena is a far more complicated one. Recently America has expressed concerns over North Korea's provocation of South Korea by carrying out shelling of the island of Yeonpyeong, which itself lies on a disputed sea border between the two countries.

South Korea:

Seoul became a member of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) in 1996. It was adversely affected by the 1997 Asian Financial Crisis. However, the country was able to recover and continue its economic growth, albeit at a slower pace.

In June 2000, as part of president Kim Dae-Jung's "Sunshine Policy" of engagement, a North–South summit took place in Pyongyang, the capital of North Korea. Later that year, Kim received the Nobel Peace Prize "for his work for democracy and human rights in South Korea and in East Asia in general, and for peace and reconciliation with North Korea in particular." However, due to discontent among the population for fruitless approaches to the North under the previous administrations and, amid North Korean provocations, a conservative government was elected in 2007 led by President Lee Myung-bak, former mayor of Seoul. More recently, Park Geun-hye won the South Korean presidential election, 2012.

In 2002, South Korea and Japan jointly co-hosted the 2002 FIFA World Cup. However, South Korean and Japanese relations later soured due to conflicting claims of sovereignty over the Liancourt Rocks ("Dokdo" in Korea), in what became known as the Liancourt Rocks dispute.

Vietnam:

Soon after the Paris Agreement on Cambodia resolved the conflict in October 1991, Vietnam established or reestablished diplomatic and economic relations with most of Western Europe, and several Asian countries. In February 1994, the United States lifted its economic embargo against Vietnam, and in June 1995, the United States and Vietnam normalized relations. In June 2005, a high-level Vietnamese delegation, led by Prime Minister Phan Van Khai, visited the United States and met with their U.S. counterparts, including President George W. Bush. This was the first such visit in 30 years.

In late 2005, a three-person collective leadership was responsible for governing Vietnam. This triumvirate consisted of the VCP general secretary (Nông Đức Mạnh, 22 April 2001 – 19 January 2011), the prime minister (Phan Văn Khải, 25 September 1997 – 27 June 2006), and the president (Trần Đức Lương, 24 September 1997 – 26 June 2006). General Secretary Manh headed up not only the VCP but also the 15-member Politburo. President Luong was chief of state, and Prime Minister Khai was head of government. The leadership was promoting a "socialist-oriented market economy" and friendly relations with the European Union, Russia, and the United States. Although the leadership was presiding over a period of rapid economic growth, official corruption and a widening gap between urban wealth and rural poverty remained stubborn problems that were eroding the VCP's authority. In 2006, Vietnam hosted the APEC Annual Summit and became the 150th member state of WTO (World Trade Organization) on 11 January 2007, after concluding bilateral agreements with the United States, Australia, New Zealand, Mexico, and the Dominican Republic in order to qualify for membership. In the summer of 2011, mass protests were held in Hanoi and Saigon, where thousands of Vietnamese protested of China's increasing military aggression and encroachment into Vietnamese waters and territories in the South China Sea. The protests were later quashed by the Communist regime following a warning from the Chinese foreign ministry that the protests were harming Sino-Vietnamese relations, as the regime wishes to maintain good relations with the Chinese government, to uphold China's support for the Hanoi regime. Manh retired in 2011, and Nguyễn Phú Trọng succeeded him, but Trọng did not succeed Manh as dominant leader of Vietnam.

In the whole, in this period China, North Korea and Vietnam continued to build socialism. In Mongolia democratization took place. Korea remained divided, relation between China and Taiwan became better.

b) Japan after 1990.

After the Cold War

Main article: Heisei period

Japan after the Cold War is also called as the Heisei period (the rule of the new emperor Akihito). 1989 marked one of the most rapid economic growth spurts in Japanese history. With a strong yen and a favorable exchange rate with the dollar, the Bank of Japan kept interest rates low, sparking an investment boom that drove Tokyo property values up sixty percent within the year. Shortly before New Year's Day, the Nikkei 225 reached its record high of 39,000. By 1991, it had fallen to 15,000, signifying the end of Japan's famed bubble economy. Unemployment ran reasonably high, but not at crisis levels. Rather than suffer large-scale unemployment and lay-offs, Japan's labor market suffered in more subtle, yet no less profound effects that were nonetheless difficult to gauge statistically. During the prosperous times, jobs were seen as long term even to the point of being lifelong. In contrast, Japan during the last decade saw a marked increase in temporary and part-time work which only promised employment for short periods and marginal benefits. This also created a generational gap, as those who had entered the labor market prior to the lost decade usually retained their employment and benefits, and were effectively insulated from the economic slowdown, whereas younger workers who entered the market a few years later suffered the brunt of its effects.

In a series of financial scandals of the LDP, a coalition led by Morihiro Hosokawa took power in 1993. Hosokawa succeeded to legislate a new plurality voting election law instead of the stalemated multi-member constituency election system. However, the coalition collapsed the next year as parties had gathered to simply overthrow LDP and lacked a unified position on almost every social issue. The LDP returned to the government in 1996, when it helped to elect Social Democrat Tomiichi Murayama as prime minister.

The Great Hanshin earthquake hit Kobe on January 17, 1995. 6,000 people were killed and 44,000 were injured. 250,000 houses were destroyed or burned in a fire. The amount of damage totaled more than ten trillion yen. In March of the same year the doomsday cult Aum Shinrikyo attacked on the Tokyo subway system with sarin gas, killing 12 and injuring hundreds more. An investigation later revealed that the cult was responsible for dozens of murders that occurred prior to the gas attacks.

Junichiro Koizumi was president of the LDP and Prime Minister of Japan from April 2001 to September 2006. Koizumi enjoyed high approval ratings. He was known as an economic reformer and he privatized the national postal system. Koizumi also had an active involvement in the War on Terrorism, sending 1,000 soldiers of the Japan Self-Defense Forces to help in Iraq's reconstruction after the Iraq War, the biggest overseas troop deployment since World War II. His conservative social and economic policies were, however, criticised for widening inequalities in Japanese society, with various people taling about the emergence of a “Kakusa shakai” (unequal society), a term symbolising discontent with neo-liberal reforms that have widened disparities in Japanese society and have created “winners” and “losers.”

The ruling coalition is formed by the liberal Democratic Party of Japan (DPJ), the leftist Social Democratic Party and the conservative People's New Party. The opposition is formed by the liberal conservative Liberal Democratic Party (LDP). Other parties are the New Komeito Party, a Sōka Gakkai party and the Japanese Communist Party. On 2 June 2010 Prime Minister Yukio Hatoyama resigned from his position as leader of the DPJ, citing the failure to fulfill his campaign promise of removing a U.S. base from the island of Okinawa as his main reason for stepping down.

On March 11, 2011, Japan suffered the strongest earthquake in its recorded history, affecting the north-east area of Honshū. The magnitude 9.0 quake was aggravated by a tsunami and also caused numerous fires and damaged several nuclear reactors. Damage to Fukushima Nuclear Plant led to meltdown of three reactors and release of radioactive material, in the largest nuclear accident since the 1986 Chernobyl disaster.

 In the whole, in this period Japan remained one of the developed capitalist countries.

Questions:

1. What is new in the Chinese history in this period?
2. Why the most countries of Far East preferred to remain on the socialist way?
3. Describe the Japanese history in this period.

Results of the XXVIth period.

It corresponds to the 22 (2) period, but now the industrial society develops in the whole planet of Earth. In this time the concepts of liberalism win: tree trade (which incorporation is WTO), human rights, bourgeois democracy with the division of powers, the nationalism increases again (in the countries of the Eastern Europe new states appear, in Balkans there are new national conflicts). It is followed by the development of technique, first of all a computer one, Internet appears, the contamination of the ecological situation grows, the global warming and changing of climate becomes evident. In the Europe the tendencies for integration strengthen, the European Union grows and expands (till 27 members), 2002 the common currency – euro is accepted. In united Germany the 6th (1990- 1998, chancellor Kohl, CDU/CSU – FDP) and 7th (1998-2005, chancellor Schröder , SDP and “Greens”) periods of the 3rd macrostage, the capital moves to Berlin; after it the 1st period of the 4th stage begins (2005 till now, chancellor Angela Merkel, the “great coalition”, then CDU/CSU –FDP). At the ruins of the USSR new states are created, Russia preserves its state and remains still a big and nuclear state, influential in its region, but already not a superpower. Russia and neighboring East Slavonic countries have about 5 periods in twenty years. China develops rapidly, becoming the second great power (besides the USA), 2003 Chinese begin to explore space. The fifth period of Chinese history lasts from 1989 till 2002 (XVIth Congress CPC), the 6th – from 2002 till now. In the 90-s the USA are leading in the world. 1999 the bombings of Yugoslavia (in response to the events after the partition of SFRY) take place, which could cause a new world war. NATO is not dissolved (despite the absence of an enemy) and even expands to the east, including the former members of the Warsaw Treaty; Russia creates the ODKB (analogical to the former Warsaw Treaty, but in the frames of the CIS); China – the Shanghai Organisation of Cooperation, the new treaty of Russia and China is concluded 2001. The rivality of democratic countries (in Europe and North America) and dictatorships (authoritarian and totalitarian) in Asia is seen again. The new colonial wars (in Afghanistan and Iraq) under the pretext of “war with terrorism” are led, Israel makes concessions to Arabs, the Palestinian autonomy is created. The socialist idea did not die (especially in Asia and Latin America, where the countries, building socialism, still exist), but Europe in the whole moves to the right; the social rights are restricted (the “demontage of social state”). After the world economic crisis the transition to the 2nd part of the 26th period takes place. Its results are the strengthening of the state regulation in different spheres, first of all in the banking.

Question:

1​ Describe the 26th period.

Future.

What will be further? According to our concept, 26 (6) period will last till 2030, then the 27 (7) period begins, corresponding to the Romanticism, therefore we call it Neoromanticism. The climatic problems because of global warming and the deficit of resources will be acute. Paganism and ecological teachings will be propagated in this time. Civilisation will confront a big crisis, will be on the eve of death and then be destroyed or transit into the new, 4th cycle. The return to the 18th century (enlightened absolutism) or even more – into the antiquity or Middle Ages with the loss of most technical decisions is possible. The features of it are seen even now (the growing of significance of world religions, formation of dynasties of rulers – in Syria, Azerbaijan, India, Indonesia and even in the USA etc. and generally heredity in all branches of occupations; the romantic works and films, praising the antiquity and Middle Ages). Notice that in the last period of the 1st cycle there were “Dark ages” (9th period, 1050-800 BCE), and in the last period of the 2nd cycle (18th period, 1200-1450) there were conquest of Jinghizhan, Timur and the “black death” in Europe, destroying the big number of population. Despite the demographic control, the population of Earth grows, therefore the big epidemy (the predecessors of which are AIDS, “bird flue”, SARS) or the new world war with the destruction of the most of population (a conflict between the East: Russia, China and Islamic world and the West: Europe and North America) are possible. Then the Earth population will be reduced till 1 bln., returning to the level of 1800 (in the worst case with the full death of civilization). The Nordic and Alpian sub-races of the white race and the black race will extinct; more strong genetically Mediterranean sub-race of the white race and mongoloids will survive. The humankind will go through the “bottle neck” (like in the time of the Old Stone age). Israel ceases its existence ca. 2048-49 (state of Israel existed two times, ca. 1032-931 BCE and 164-63BCE, both times ca. 100 years); the USA, China, India and Russia will be disintegrated (from Russia some autonomies can be separated, first of all the North Caucasus). Disintegration of one of the nuclear states (to which now India and Pakistan belong, which could be in conflict with each other) or sudden change of power in them (nationalization or privatization) can cause the global crisis. Till 2022 the Chinese economics can still develop at the modern extensive course, then the economic and political problems will begin; China will begin a new macrostage of its development and be united with Taiwan. Soon (ca. 2014) because of the expanding of EU and NATO and the positioning of US system of anti-rocket defence in Europe the deterioration of relations between Russia, USA and Europe will take place (a new “cold war”, but with some countries of EU the friendly relations will be preserved, like in the time of “détente”), and in the 2045-48 (corresponding to 1812-15) even the war between them is possible, but Russia cannot be defeated. The patriotic forces will come to the power in Russia ca. 2024, ca. 2025 or late the Union can be restored (with Ukraine, Belorussia and some other countries on the territory of the former Soviet Union). Then the monarchy will be restored (ca. 2048). St.-Petersburg can become the capital of Russian Empire. The USA war with terrorism, corresponding to the First Punic war, will continue till 2019, then it will be led again in about twenty years (like the 2nd Punic War). EU will more and more be changed into the unified superpower with about 40 countries. NATO will be divided into two parts – European and Anglosaxonic one. The monarchies will be restored also in other countries, so to the end of period the British (former colonies included) and European (ca. 2025, analogy of empire of Charlemagne) empires and Arabic khaliphate will exist. The countries of the “third world” number already now the most of Earth population, but their development on the Western way will certainly bring them to the crisis, and the Earth – to the increasing economic catastrophe. The progress of science is more and more expensive, new discoverings and landing of men upon Mars are still possible, but the science can also be exhausted (as in the end of antiquity). The sciences, developed in the XIXth century (Egyptology, Assyriology, evolution theory) will be abolished or changed. The “world village” will overcome the “world town” (Ling Biao), a “new Middle Ages” (Berdyaev), possibly, will come already 2070. The four main casts will restored, the representatives of the lower casts will live in the ecologically pure villages, the first two – in the towns. Cities will be destroyed. The “neofeudalism” (socialim) will begin. Then the transition into the new, 4th cycle of civilization (2070-4320) is possible, which corresponds to the upper intuitive (2070-3070) and spiritual (3070-4320) plans. Villages and towns will become more and more close to each other, the casts will be destroyed because their representatives began to be multifunctioned. Instead of technique the possibilities of men themselves will be developed. The monotheistic religion will overcome all other religions. New variants of it will be created - "new Christianity" (ca.2193) and "new Islam" (ca. 2770). Then the civilization, ca. 74 years old, will return to the “neoprimitivism” or to the communist society.

Question:

1​ What is the future of the humankind?

 Table of historic periods.

Primitivism (primitive society system).

“Prediluvean” history (neolit), physical and aetheral plans.

1 cycle.

The most ancient history (early class society, bronze age, “lower astral”).

"Antiquity"

 Old World New World

1 3050-2800 BCE 50 BCE -200 CE

2 2800-2550 200-450

3 2550-2300 450-700

4 2300-2150 700-950

"Middle Ages"

5 2050-1800 950-1200

6 1800-1550 1200-1450

7 1550-1300 1450-1550

8 1300-1050

9 1050-800

2 cycle (800 BCE – 1450)

Ancient history (slaveowner’s system, “upper astral”)

10..800-550 BCE-”archaics”

11.550-300 BCE-”classics”.

12.300-50 BCE-”hellenism”

13.50 BCE-200 CE-epoch of early Roman Empire.

Middle Ages (feudal system, “lower mental”)

14..200-450 - epoch of late Roman Empire.

15.450-700 - early Byzantine Empire.

16.700-950 - 1st period of the Developed Middle Ages.

17.950-1200 – 2nd period of the Developed Middle Ages. .

18.1200-1450 – Late Middle Ages.

3 cycle (1450-2070)

Newtime ("new antiquity"), capitalism ("new slaveownership"), higher mental (causal) plan.

19. 1450-1700 -"neoarchaics".

20. 1700-1790 -"neoclassics".

21. 1790-1830 -"romanticism".

22. 1830-1870 – «liberalism».

Modern time (lower intuitive plan )

23. 1870-1910 – «imperialism».

24. 1910-1950 – «militarism».

25.1950-1990 – «social-imperialism».

26.1990-2030 – «neoliberalism».

27. 2030-2070 – «neoromanticism».

4 cycle (2070-4320)

“Neofeudalism”

(higher intuitive, spiritual plan)

“New primitivism”,communism.

100 years of civilization =1 year of human life.

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