

HISTORY OF THE MODERN WORLD

**Core course of BA History
V semester**

**CUCBCSS
2014 Admn. onwards**



**UNIVERSITY OF CALICUT
SCHOOL OF DISTANCE EDUCATION**

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STUDY MATERIAL

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Contents	Page No.
<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Module I</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;">Rise of the Modern World</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Renaissance in Italy ❖ Influence of the Asian world ❖ Literature science Art and Architecture Political Thought ❖ Reformation and Counter Reformation Martin Luther ❖ Geographical explorations ❖ Rise of Nation States 	5-19
<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Module II</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;">Growth of capitalism</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Scientific Revolution ❖ Industrial Revolution ❖ Plunder of Colonies Imperialism 	20-27
<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Module III</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;">Development of Democracy</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ English Revolution John Locke ❖ American Revolution Thomas Jefferson ❖ French Revolution Enlightenment Thinkers ❖ Abolition of Slavery in the US ❖ Process of Unifications –Germany and Italy –Herder and Mazzini 	28-49
<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Module IV</u></p> <p style="text-align: center;">20th Century World</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ 20th Century world –I World war – causes and Results ❖ Russian Revolution –background, ideology and Impact ❖ League of Nations –Great depression –Nazism and fascism ❖ II World war –UNO 	50-70

Module I

Rise of the Modern World

The Medieval period was followed by the Modern period which is characterised by strong faith in reason or rationality, scientific temper and secular credentials. Reason had replaced belief as the organising principle of knowledge in the modern times. Hence modernity is distinct from medievalism and it signals the emergence of a new age which is, to certain extent, universal and all pervading. This does not mean modernity or for the matter modern age begin suddenly in a new morning, but it has its own historical antecedents.

The changes that were occurring at the end of the medieval times, by the 12th century had contributed to beginning of modern world. Among the changes, the rise of a middle class, the emergence of cities, the growth of trade and commerce, the wide spread use of money and outbreak of peasant revolts deserve special mention. These changes led not only to the disintegration of the medieval world, but to emergence of a new order in the form modernity as well.

There are four historical developments that mark the beginning of modern times; Renaissance, Reformation and Counter Reformation, Geographical Explorations and the Rise and growth of Nation States. Modernity also represents the emergence and growth of a new socio- economic order –capitalism – which effected far reaching changes not only in Europe but in the world at large. Further, modern age revolutionised the life of people, hence the society, economy and polity at various levels and strata.

Renaissance

Renaissance is one of the first developments that marked the beginning of modern times. Renaissance simply means ‘rebirth’, but it was more than that, it was not merely the rebirth or revival of the achievements of classical civilisations, but it was a state of mind, where Europeans developed a new world view. It was a new development that brought about a series of changes in almost all spheres of knowledge – arts, literature, science, religion, philosophy and politics. It was a system of thought that prompted the Europeans to think for themselves and the world in which they live on. It was development that enabled man to discover himself and the World about him, along with his ability to change the outlook of life.

Renaissance can better be considered as a cultural and intellectual movement which paved the way varied changes in almost all walks of life. It was an age of transition- transition from medievalism with its emphasis on Scholasticism, authority of the Church to modernism with its emphasis on reason, rationality and scientific thinking. It also heralded the revival of humanistic approach, idea of individualism, new concepts of state, questioning faculty and the spirit of adventure. All these striking features became the foundation from which other historical developments flourished not only in the history of Europe but that of the world too.

Renaissance in Italy

Renaissance began in Italy roughly between AD 1300 and AD 1500 and then spread to other parts of Europe by the first half of the 16th century. There were many factors that helped Italy to become the home of renaissance.

The emergence and growth of cities was the primary factor that made Italy the home of renaissance. Cities like Genoa, Venice, Florence, Milan etc. emerged which facilitated growth in the economy of Italy, This growth of cities produced changes in the society, which witnessed the emergence of new wealthy class of Middlemen and merchants. This class encouraged those who were interested in the study of the achievements of Classical civilisations.

These two developments consequently led to the disintegration of the then existing social structure and the middle class enjoyed considerable degree of freedom. This amounted to the growth of the idea of individualism and scientific thinking.

Like Greece, Italy was the centre of classical civilisation –Rome. Italy had and continues to witness the remains of classical literature, art forms and architectural monuments. The remains of Rome's imperial glory were to be found all over the Rome and Greek remains could be seen in southern Italy and Sicily. This prompted the people of Italy to study the achievements of classical civilisations.

The patronage of the rulers of Italian states also responsible for the beginning of Renaissance. Reference is to be made to the Medici family of Florence and the ruler Lorenzo de Medici.

Influence of the Asian World

Traditionally, Renaissance was seen from a European entered A perspective and it was believed that only European ideas and concepts were responsible. But modern research has undermined this surmise and historians have posited the impact of the Asian World behind European Renaissance. Several of the basic ideas of Renaissance had their origin in the East- Particularly from India, China, Iran, Arabia and Central Asia.

Through the Crusades, the Europeans imbibed many an idea. The Europeans could read many classical Greek authors and works, thanks to the translations and their preservation of these by eminent Arab scholars. These include Ptolemy, Plato, Aristotle, Archimedes and Euclid.

Further, the ideas of navigational tools like mariner's Compass, astrolabe and maps were provided from the Asian World. The ideas for the printing Press were of the Chinese wood block printing. Even for the gun powder, which was put for the destruction of the feudal castles, the Europe was indebted to the Asian world. Thus, the impact of Asian ideas and innovations cannot be sidelined as far as the origin and significance of Renaissance.

As already stated, Humanism was the hallmark of Renaissance. Humanism was a specific way of thinking, emphasising man and his activities. Hence Renaissance marked the shift from 'God-centred or Religion-centred' view to 'Man-centred' perspective.

During that period, the Humanism had been used at two levels. At the first level, that is, at the technical level Humanism was used as a programme of studying humanities – man and his activities- the emotions, actions and thinking of man which were represented in language, literature, history, politics, philosophy, ethics etc. This naturally revolutionised the theory and practice of education, which underwent drastic changes. Thus 'New Learning', as a cultural phenomenon developed in the place of existing curricula. This new phenomenon enabled the study of humanities but natural sciences as well.

At the second level-that is at the general level, Humanism stood for the dignity, the rights and the value of man. Renaissance openly declared that man is worthy of study and expressed deep faith in the creative potential of man. Hence it proclaimed the freedom of individual, which became and continues to be the striking feature of modernity. The Renaissance thinkers strongly believed that man with an active mind and body was capable knowing and controlling the world and orienting one's own fate and happiness. Thus, Renaissance rejected the Church centred concept of life and highlighted the earthly life.

Renaissance in Literature

The impact of Renaissance first appeared in the field of Literature. Instead of the Latin, the Renaissance writers took the language of the people. Thus Renaissance marked the emergence of language of the people as the language of literature. In other words, Renaissance marked the beginnings of modern European Languages – the Italian, the French, the English, the Dutch, the Spanish, the German and the like. Moreover, it also led to the creation of new literary forms such as sonnets, essays, short

stories and literary criticisms. The emergence of humanistic literature was the lasting impact of Renaissance on literature. Secular themes also became the subject matter of literature. Finally, the use of prose for all kinds of writings was the key of Renaissance literature.

Dante was the foremost literary figure of Italy during this period. The author of Divine Comedy and The Monarch, Dante used Tuscan language, which led the development of Italian Language, for writing his works. Petrarch (1304 -1374) was another figure, who is considered as the 'father of humanism'. He developed a new literary form called Sonnet from vernacular folk songs, through his 'Sonnets to Laura'. He is also the author of an epic, 'Africa' written in Latin Language.

Boccaccio(1313 -1375) is considered as the 'father of Italian Prose', he had written the work 'Decameron', a collection of 100 short stories with themes selected from contemporary popular life. Another notable writer of the period was Machiavelli, the author of 'The Prince' which furnishes the ways and means to be in power and to exercise and practise absolute power. He is often considered as the father of Modern Political Science.

As already noted, Renaissance had spread to other parts of Europe from Italy. Francois Rabelais and Michel de Montaigne were two eminent Renaissance writers in France. The former, the author of 'Gargantua' used native French in a manner that the most humble person could enjoy, exposed the abuses of papacy and monks. The latter developed a new literary form called 'Essay' in the French. He was a polished, urbane essayist and a leading humanist. He can be considered as the forerunner of modern psychology of education, and was thinker who noted that the problems of human life are more important to solve than the syntax of an obscure sentence. He earned the title 'the first modern man'.

In England, Renaissance produced greatest literary figures of the age, the most notable are Sir Thomas More, William Chaucer, John Lyly, Robert Greene, Christopher Marlowe, Ben Johnson, Edmund Spenser and William Shakespeare. The author 'Utopia', Thomas More vividly pictures an ideal society. Chaucer is the father of English poetry and his tome, 'The Canterbury Tales'. Shakespeare was the greatest dramatist of the age and made a lasting impact on the drama.

In Holland, the spirit of Renaissance finds itself in the writings of Erasmus of Rotterdam, the author of 'In Praise of Folly', a satire through which he made fun at the corrupt practices of the Church. It contains his conception of human nature.

Spain was another country which produced leading writers of the age. Among them, the name of Cervantes deserves mention. He wrote his magnum opus 'Don

Quixote', a novel in which he mocked at the life of medieval knights and their idea of medieval chivalry.

Martin Luther was the leading thinker of Germany during this period. He brought about the German translation of Bible, which paved the way for the Protestant Reformation in the 16th century.

Renaissance also sharpened man's critical scholarship, which in course of time developed as a discipline. Accurate scholarship became the hallmark of Renaissance.

Renaissance in Art and Architecture

Renaissance made lasting impact on art, architecture and sculpture.

The Renaissance artists made art humanistic in nature, though they selected religious themes and Biblical subjects. What they had done was that they made a humanistic and secular touch to their creations. Along with this, they separated painting from architecture. Further, new materials were used for paintings viz, canvas, wood etc. along with frescoes. They also made oil painting very popular.

Hence, painting had undergone the thrilling influences. Two separate schools of painting developed in Italy during this period. The Florentine and the Venetian. The former was centred on the city of Florence, while the latter that of Venice. The founder of the Florentine school is Giotto. This school produced the world's greatest painters – Leonardo da Vinci, Michael Angelo and Raphael.

Leonardo da Vinci was multifaceted personality who had excelled himself in almost all spheres of knowledge. He was, basically a painter, an engineer, architect, musician, mathematician and what not? He is famous as a painter for his three creations – Mona Lisa, The Last Supper and The Virgin of the Rocks.

Michael Angelo was another prominent painter of the period. He made his mark as a painter for his The Last Judgement and The Fall of Man which were painted on the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican.

Raphael excelled as a painter for his Madonna, the Mother of Christ

The Venetian school was characterised by the absence of mystic and spiritual themes. It was noted by the emphasis on materialistic themes. Giovanni Bellini can rather be considered as founder of this school, which was the final expression of the secularisation of painting. Titian is represented this school with his Portrait of Pope Paul III.

Along with painting, sculpture also had undergone changes during this period. Sculpture began to get its independent stature in this period. Besides, this period witnessed the emergence of "free standing sculpture", where separate and independent works of art as separated from buildings emerged. The Renaissance period witnessed

the remarkable works of renowned sculptors – Donatello, Lorenzo Ghiberti, and Michael Angelo. Donatello is famous for his Bronze statue of ‘David’. He also developed sculptures of three dimension character. As a sculptor, Michael Angelo is famous for his sculptures like the huge statue of David, the gigantic statue of Moses and the well adored ‘Pieta’.

In the sphere of architecture, the Renaissance architects excelled. They had given away with the Gothic style of architecture, instead, they emphasised the significance of arches, dome and decorative columns. Architecture also had become secular during this period. The specimens of secular architecture can be witnessed in many parts of Europe – The Pitti Palace in Florence, the Farnese Palace in Rome, and the Piccolomini Palace in Siena. The Church of St: Peter in Rome is one of the examples of new style of architecture.

Renaissance in Science

Renaissance marked the beginning of Modern Science for it was the thinkers of the period, who had given importance to observation and experimentation in gaining knowledge and totally rejected the medieval practice of blind faith and speculative thought. It is Francis Bacon, who introduced the method of systematic observation and experimentation as the guide to valid knowledge, thus he is considered as the father of Inductive Method or Scientific method.

Almost all segments of Science underwent changes during the period of study- geography, astronomy, chemistry, physics, mathematics, anatomy, engineering and medical science. In the field of geography and astronomy great advances had been made- the Helio centric theory of Universe and earth as a planet. Here the names of various scientists deserve mention- Copernicus, John Kepler, Tyco Brahe and Galilee Galileo. Sir Isaac Newton made a remarkable discovery, the theory of gravitation during this period.

In the arena of medical sciences, innovative advances were made. Vesalius made an in-depth study on human organs that made far reaching changes in Anatomy. William Harvey discovered the circulation of blood. Scientific discoveries such as printing press, gun powder and mariners compass revolutionised the thinking of the people during the Renaissance period. This period also witnessed the establishment of scientific societies like Paris Academy in Paris and Royal Society in London.

Renaissance in Political Thought

As already stated, Renaissance marked the beginning of modern political thought, as distinct from medieval theological or religious thought. The Renaissance thinkers tried to separate politics from religion this had been reflected in the works of

Nicolas Machiavelli. The early thinker of the period, Dante was also a shrewd political thinker, the author of 'The Monarch', in which he stated that a ruler should be supreme in non religious matters.

It was the Renaissance political thinker Marsilius of Padua, who criticised the political intervention of the Pope of Roman Catholic Church in his book, 'The Defender of Peace'.

The father of Political science, Machiavelli stood for authoritarianism in the conduct of administration and he openly stated that a ruler can use any means to be himself in power. His works, The Prince and The Discourses influenced the political thinking of the west not only in the Renaissance period but the later years also.

Thomas Hobbes and John Locke were the two prominent political thinkers of the age. Thomas Hobbes is well known for his theory of Social Contract, which is the core theme of his book The Leviathan. John Locke, the author of The Two Treatises of Government also advocated his own theory of Social Contract.

All these streams of political thought did impact the political history of Europe. It experienced the rise and growth of Nation States in the following centuries and made their manifestations in life and political behaviour of the people.

To put it short, Renaissance, as a new process of thought and action laid the foundation for other historical developments to come, hence, other developments, particularly, the Reformation is often called as the child of Renaissance.

REFORMATION

There was , yet another historical development, Reformation that marked the beginning of modern age in European history, It can be defined as a revolt not only against the dominance of Roman Catholic Church over almost all walks of the life of the people, but against the evils of the Church as well. It manifested itself in two developments- The Protestant Revolution, which resulted in a split in Christianity and the Counter Reformation that effected certain reforms within the Roman Catholic Church. It was not merely a religious movement, but had its social and political underpinnings.

To start with, during the whole middle ages, the Roman Catholic Church had become the largest, wealthiest and most influential institution. Its head, the Pope even, exercised political power and it was said that he was the maker and unmake of rulers. Instead of living a simple and catholic life, he lived in luxury, kept standing armies and he could make wars and peace. Celibacy was a dream for him. On the heels of the Pope, the clergy also imitated him and there was rampant degeneration. Priesthood had become an attractive profession to amass wealth and power. Even the appointment of

the clergy was through corrupt means and corruption had become the order of the day. Immorality among the clergy was not an issue during the medieval period, where blind faith replaced all other principles.

With regard to the Roman Catholic Church, it was the biggest land owner in Western Europe. As per the then existing laws and traditions, Church properties were exempted from taxation, hence the burden of taxation fell on the shoulders of common people. Naturally people rose against the Church. To make matters worse, the Church squeezed large amount of money through various means. For example, Peter's Penance, Tithe and Annates were some of such taxes. It also collected funds from people in the name of constructing cathedrals or repair old ones. There were fraud practices to sell Christian antiques or relics, though not genuine or original to amass huge sums of money. Further, a new fraud practice, namely the Sale of Indulgences, which, it was believed that the purchase would free a believer from all sins and granted remission of punishment, also crept in the Church. The existence of Inquisition to punish the heretics was set up. Moreover, those who oppose these practices were brutally punished without any justification.

These long years of exploitation and brutality, in course of time, began to be questioned at the end of the medieval period. This resulted in the emergence of Protestant Reformation.

Renaissance laid the foundation for the Reformation. The ideas and the new outlook that the Renaissance generated, acted as catalysts. Again, the rise of regional languages as the languages of literature and the consequent emergence of national consciousness among the people and the resultant Nation States played a pivotal role in the emergence of the Reformation. In the newly risen Nation States, powerful and absolute monarchs took the reins of administration. These rulers disliked papal interference, encouraged the people who rebel against the Church and questioned the orders of the Pope in non religious matters.

It was in this context that these monarchs got the immense support of the newly emerged middle class, who stood for a stable government and a peaceful atmosphere, of law and order. These middle class opposed the Church restrictions on business and it vehemently against the Church. Thus the role of the capitalist class cannot be undermined in the emergence of Reformation.

As already noted, Renaissance had made lasting impact on the people by inculcating the spirit of questioning and scientific thinking. The people refused to accept blindly the Church and its activities. Further, the evil practices and abuses of the Church were exposed publicly by the Renaissance thinkers through their creations; the

best specimen is the work of Erasmus of Rotterdam and his magnum opus, *In Praise of Folly*.

Germany was the home of Reformation and it was Martin Luther who publicly opposed the Roman Catholic Church. But the origins of Reformation can be traced back to 14th century in England. John Wycliffe, the Morning Star of English Reformation, strongly criticised the immoral life of the clergy. Following him, John Huss of Bohemia propagated the teachings of Wycliffe and became a staunch opponent of the Church.

Reformation in Germany

It was in Germany that the Protestant Reformation began. There were many factors that favoured Germany to be the home of Reformation. Firstly, it was the moral and economic exploitation of the Church that was responsible for the beginning of Reformation in Germany. The exploitation was too pronounced that the people were fed up with the church. Thus all groups of people, the peasants, the middle class and even the believers were against the Church.

The invention of the Printing Press by John Gutenberg also favoured Germany. It led to the printing of pamphlets and printed materials and their distribution among the people, who could clearly understand the deviation of the Church authorities from the original scriptures

The moral decay of the Church found itself in the sale of Indulgences in the 15th and 16th centuries. In 1517, Tetzel, the agent of Pope came to Germany for the sale of Indulgences; this provoked Martin Luther to revolt publicly against the Church.

Martin Luther

He was the professor of theology in the University of Wittenberg in Germany. Being a professor well versed in Christian scriptures, he had disagreement with regard to certain practices and ideology the Church. In 1510, he eye witnessed the moral degradation of the Church and experienced corruption among the clergy, when he visited Rome; he was convinced himself the need for reform. The arrival of Tetzel for the sale Indulgences provided the apt opportunity for revolt.

In October, 1517, Luther, following a University custom, posted Ninety Five Theses or Propositions on the subject of Indulgences on the door of the church at Wittenberg. He also challenged anyone to debate them with him.

He believed that a man could possess a direct relationship with God without the mediation of the Church. He further argued that he who gives to the poor or lends to the needy does better than who buys Indulgences. He stressed the supreme authority of Bible as the foundation of the Church and Belief. He also stood for the priesthood of all

believers. He stated, 'every man is his own priest', and opposed the system of hierarchy in the Church. Luther also repudiated the supreme authority of the Church over political affairs and openly declared that the Church had no power to indulge in the affairs of the state.

The Pope and the Church authorities were very furious about the ideas and practice of Luther, and ordered him to withdraw the 95 Theses. Instead of accepting the order, Martin Luther publicly set on fire the order. This works of Luther compelled the Church to outcaste and excommunicate him in 1521. This resulted in a split in the Church, for Luther was aptly supported by rulers of small German principalities, notable among them was the ruler of Saxony. In course of time, Luther brought out the German translation of Bible. Thus the Lutheran Church was born, which led to conflict between the Lutherans of Northern Germany and the Catholic believers of the Southern parts of Germany. The conflict had finally led to the establishment of an independent Lutheran Protestant Church in 1555.

Reformation in Other Parts of Europe

The success of Lutheranism in Germany prompted many countries of Europe to revolt, which resulted in emergence of protest movements. The Protestant Revolution in Switzerland was led by Ulrich Zwingli and John Calvin. The former, even more than Luther placed his faith in the authority of Christian Scriptures alone. He denounced the sale of Indulgences, and laid the foundation for the emergence of Zwinglianism. What he had was that he gave an initial impetus to Protestantism in Switzerland.

John Calvin was the most famous 16th century Protestant leader next to Luther. A French man by birth, Calvin studied theology and law at Paris, where he was interested in the teachings of Luther. He deserted Catholicism and his 'conversion' resulted in his escape from France. He fled to Switzerland, where he set up Calvinism, the core of his religious preaching. He spent most of his life at Geneva, where he became the real ruler.

The magnum opus of Calvin, 'The Institutes of the Christian Religion' was published in 1536. It is unquestionably one of the most important books on systematic theology ever written. He believed in the theory of predestination, rejected the doctrine of Sacraments and aimed at the establishment of a religion with simplicity. Calvinism, in course of time, spread to France, Holland, Germany, Hungary, Poland and England. The French Calvinists were known as Huguenots.

England also had her share in the Protestant Reformation. In England it started not on religious lines, but on personal and political grounds. Unlike in other parts of Europe, Reformation in England was led by the King himself, Henry VIII. The king along with divorcing his wife, wanted to marry Anne Boleyn and the consequent refusal of the Pope to grant divorce resulted in setting up separate church. He also severed all

relations with Roman Catholic Church. Being the ruler, by passing the Act of Supremacy in 1534, he became the head of the English Church, but retained Catholic doctrine and rituals. The newly constituted church was named as the Anglican Church and the broke away religion as Anglicanism.

COUNTER REFORMATION

The realisation that the policy of prosecution and suppression of Protestant revolt would not bring the desired results prompted the Church authorities to think seriously to reform itself which resulted in the Counter Reformation. To put it simply, it was a movement within the Roman Catholic Church to reform and to do away with the so called abuses of the Church. Hence, it can also be called Catholic Reformation, and it began with Paul, who became the Pope in 1534. The Counter Reformation was effected through Three main agencies; The Council of Trent, the Inquisition and the Society of Jesus

The Council of Trent was a conference of the Roman Catholic Church held between 1545 and 1563 at Trent in Northern Italy. In the light of protests from many quarters, the Council discussed, clarified and redefined the doctrines, most of which had been disputed by the Protestants, of Christianity. Primarily, it tried to bring moral reforms within the Church. It also cemented the indispensable authority of the Pope. As already stated, it made drastic reforms in the discipline and administration of the Church; and forbidden evils such as simony and secular pursuits on the part of the clergy. For providing better moral education for the clergy, seminaries were started. Finally, it made a list of books, known as the Index, that contain anti Catholic tempers and ordered Catholics not to read those books. It also redefined heresy.

The Inquisition was a tribunal of the Roman Catholic Church to try the cases of heresy. Its trials were held in secret under great torture and punishments were so cruel that these included fines, flogging, imprisonment and death by burning. Thus, through ferocious means, it tried to bring glory to the Church.

The Society of Jesus was another agency to bring reforms within the Church. It was founded by Ignatius Loyola (1491-1556), a Spanish soldier in 1534 and it had much to do with the revival of Catholicism in the latter half of the 16th century. The members of the Society were called Jesuits and It was approved by the Pope in 1540 as a monastic order. This Order, the Order of the Jesuits or the Company of Jesus tried to regain the lost glory and power of the Church by starting schools and organising missionary services. It also attempted to bring back Protestants to Catholicism. In addition to the already existing vows of chastity, obedience and poverty with regard to

the clergy, a special vow of allegiance to Pope was also made by this Order. But, it suppressed free thinking and strict discipline was severely implemented. It also worked hand in hand with the Inquisition.

Effects of the Reformation

The religious division of Europe into a number of hostile camps was one of the effects of reformation. This resulted in religious conflicts and wars in Europe in the name of religious ideology.

The rise the Protestant ethic and ideology led to entrepreneurship, which naturally resulted in the growth of capitalism.

Reformation had played vital role in the rise of nationalism in Europe. The rise absolute monarchy in Europe had its foundation in the Reformation.

The establishment of schools and seminaries and the spread of education were the lasting impact of Reformation. This stimulated people to re examine and question age old ideas, beliefs and institutions.

But, like all religions, Reformation made hurdles in the growth of science and art. More than emphasising the spirit of reason and rationality, they still insisted on faith, which became a hurdle to science.

GEOGRAPHICAL EXPLORATIONS

Geographical Explorations were those developments that prompted the Europeans to discover sea routes to the already known lands and to discover new routes unknown lands, seas and continents. These developments, for the first time, physically brought together almost all countries of the globe. The geographical explorations of the 15th and 16th centuries enabled Europe to expand to the non European world. Further. These resulted in shaping world history primarily in favour of Europe

Causes for the Geographical explorations

Economic factor was the main catalyst for the Explorations. The already risen middle wanted to acquire more wealth through trade and commerce; but the monopoly of Europe's Eastern trade was in the hands of Italians. This paved the way for extreme expensiveness of Eastern goods. Eventually, other European nations were in search of new sea routes to East that naturally led to the geographical Explorations.

The encouragement and financial support of the emerging national monarchs also contributed for the Explorations. The monarchs, who acquired political power, in order to stabilise their economies, fully supported the explorers to find out new routes.

The role of the missionaries in spreading religion cannot go unnoticed in the discovery of new routes and sea routes. It is said that Geographical Explorations were related with 3 'G's –Gold, God and Glory.

The fall of Constantinople to Ottoman Turks further acted as an immediate factor. The conquest led to the closure of the land route to the East, which in turn compelled the Europeans to find out alternate routes to the East.

The inventions like Astrolabe and Mariner's Compass also furthered the Explorations. Along with this, the spirit of adventure and thirst for knowledge generated by the Renaissance also helped the Discoveries.

Portugal and Geographical Explorations

For many reasons, it was Portugal that led the Discoveries. This pioneering activity of Portugal was due to certain specific factors.

The real driving force was Prince Henry, known in history as Henry the navigator. Actually he was not a navigator, but he had devoted his life to scientific Exploration and the extension of Portugal's empire and commerce. In 1419, he had set up a school for training sea personnel. Moreover, he provided all encouragement to voyages and navigators. This benefited Portugal to become the pioneer in Geographical Explorations.

The king John II also extended his patronage to navigators. He provided all encouragements to find out new sea route to India. This marked the beginning of the new discoveries. Thus, Bartholomew Diaz sailed up to the southern tip of Africa, which he named as 'the Cape of Storms' as he had been caught up in terrible storms at this southern tip in 1488. But, this discovery was treated as a prelude to the explorations to come, and the king John named it as 'Cape of Good Hope'.

Realising the significance of this discovery, Vasco da Gama followed the same route and from the help of an Arabian merchant, he reached Kappad near Calicut in 1498. This has great significance in history, for it opened a new sea route from Europe to India. After two years, Cabral, by accident, discovered Brazil.

Meanwhile, Spain had also been involved herself in finding out new sea routes to reach the East. In 1492, Christopher Columbus, an Italian Navigator, amply sponsored by Spain attempted to discover a new sea route to India. After an eventful voyage from Parlos in Spain, Columbus reached Bahamas Islands, which he mistook as India. Later in 1501, Amerigo Vespucci, another Italian, discovered the North American continent, which was named after him. Soon, Spanish navigator Balboa crossed the Isthmus of Panama.

One of the epoch making discoveries was made by Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese navigator, who served for Spain. In order to find out a sea route to the East,

he started his voyage westwards in 1519. He crossed the Atlantic and reached the southern tip of South of America, this part is known as the Straits of Magellan. Afterwards, he further moved westwards, and entered a new sea, which was more peaceful than the Atlantic and named the Pacific. Travelling westwards for three months, Magellan and his team reached Philippines. After unfortunate incident, in which Magellan was killed, the team continued their voyage along the known route of Indian Ocean and the coast of Africa. Finally they returned back and reached Spain in 1522. This has much in world history, for Magellan and his team happened to be the first navigators of the world. This also affirmed the helio-centric theory of universe.

In course of time, other European nations followed their suit. The nations like England, France and Holland participated in the Explorations. In 1497, sponsored by England, the Italian navigator, John Cabot discovered Newfoundland in North America. Francis Drake, Sir Walter Raleigh and Gilbert, all English navigators discovered the Eastern coast of America, where, the colonies of England sprang up in course of time. Francis Drake is the first English to sail around the world.

The French also contributed their share in the Explorations. Jacques Cartier discovered the St: Lawrence River in North America. This was followed by the exploration of the Hudson River by Henry Hudson, the Dutch. The Dutch was also responsible for the discovery of the Australian continent. Thus, these discoveries made far reaching impact on the history of mankind in all spheres.

Results of Geographical Explorations

These discoveries effected remarkable changes in history. These explorations, at the outset widened human knowledge with regard to geography, physical features etc. It brought together, for the first time, almost all countries of the world physically.

In the economic sphere, enormous increase in the volume of trade was one of the lasting results. This increase in trade led the commercial revolution, which became the basis for the growth of capitalism, industrial capitalism. It also led to the emergence of a new economic doctrine- Mercantilism.

Moreover, the centre of European trade was shifted from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic. Thus the Italian monopoly in Eastern trade ended and new cities emerged on the Atlantic coast.

These developments dealt a heavy blow to medieval guild system of Europe, where new classes were on the offing. Finally, these discoveries led to the emergence of colonialism in history and European nations tried to establish colonies in the newly discovered as well as already known lands, which resulted in competition and later led to imperialism.

RISE OF NATION STATES

Nationalism is a modern phenomenon that appeared in the modern age along with the origin and growth of capitalism. To put it simply, it is the oneness of people having a common language and having a common culture and territory. It is a political ideology and there is much debate and continues to be with regard to the term nationalism. It was this spirit that shaped the destiny of the world that witnessed the rise of nation states. A nation state is a modern enterprise based on nationalism and on the system of capitalist production, which consolidates the economic ties among regions and merges local markets into national market. It is also the basic form of political organisation that replaced medieval and ancient political systems.

Factors that Favoured the Rise of Nation States

Many factors had contributed for the rise of nation states; The most important among were, Decline of Feudalism and the ensuing increase in the power of the king, the role of middle class, Renaissance and Reformation and the rise absolutism.

The decline of feudalism had created an atmosphere, wherein people began to think in terms of common culture and language. This atmosphere also led to increasing power of the monarch, who could maintain an army of his own, that favoured him to question the authority of the Church and the Feudal lords.

The middle class played a crucial role in the emergence of nation states. The middle class wanted a conducive atmosphere for its commercial and trading interests. But the then existing condition was clouded with feudal anarchy and it was detrimental to the growth of trade. Hence the middle class fully supported the emerging monarchs with its finance to build their own army and state apparatus. This enabled the kings to be powerful to crush the power of the feudal lords and castles.

Renaissance had contributed for the rise of national languages and an ideological backing. This helped the people to unite behind a common language. Reformation paved the way for capitalistic economy that could unite people economically.

The rise absolutism also furthered the formation of nation states. This political practice could unite the people having a common language and culture in a specific territory, almost having natural boundaries.

Hence the 15th and 16th centuries witnessed the rise of nation states; the first nation states to be formed were England and France, followed by Spain, Portugal and Holland. But it is an irony the Germany and Italy could become nation states only in the 19th century.

Module II

GROWTH OF CAPITALISM

As a socio economic system, capitalism started growing from the 15th century onwards and the basic factors contributed for it had already been discussed elsewhere. It is a system in which factors of production – Land, Labour, Organisation and Capital - are owned by private individuals or a group of private individuals and production has been carried out for the maximisation of profit.

The basic process for the emergence of capitalism is called ‘primitive accumulation’. Along with capital, the concentration of labourers is mandatory for production and the first form of such concentration was in the ‘workshop’ or ‘manufactory’ of the late Middle Ages. This process was furthered not by production, but by trade, i.e., distribution, that phase was characterised by merchant capitalism or commercial capitalism. Then, of course, the next stage, production in the factories, featured by the setting up of factories, large scale production and nuance of industries, and hence industrial capitalism.

In the course of its growth, capitalism has passed through different stages, that of commercial capitalism, industrial capitalism and finance capitalism. The first one, commercial capitalism was the product of the Commercial Revolution. This phase was marked not by production but by distribution mechanism. The rise of middle class with its thrust on trade, led to the investment of capital for buying commodities from their producers, preferably from the east and selling them in European markets. These classes were not directly involved in production, hence they were intermediaries. This phase witnesses the formation of Joint Stock Companies and the beginning of the colonisation of the non European world by the Europeans.

In the second stage, which was characterised by the accumulation of capital, ample space for the easy availability of raw materials, growth of worldwide markets and of course, abundant consumers, capitalism emerged as a distinct mode of production. It was promoted by the Agrarian Revolution. It was also furthered by technological innovations, which almost replaced human labour with that of machines. Thus it marked the beginning of machine age in history and large scale production became a reality.

Finally, the third phase, that of finance capitalism emerged. This phase is marked by the role of multinational companies, who predominantly determine the market and the tastes and interests of the consumers. Unlike the earlier modes of production, which were not, to a certain extent, universal in nature, Capitalism has its universal character

revolutionised all aspects of human life –production, mode of life, tastes and interests, mentalities, values, communication and transportation and social attitudes.

SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION

The 17th century witnessed the emergence of a revolution in the scientific field, known as the Scientific Revolution. It is Alexander Koyre, the philosopher cum historian who coined the term Scientific Revolution in 1939 to denote the change in the scientific field in the 17th century. It was the culmination of the changes that were already occurring in the 15th and 16th centuries.

The following are the striking changes effected by the scientific revolution;
The total replacement of the Geo centric theory by the proven Helio centric theory
Rejection of the authority of the Roman Catholic Church
The invention and application of the Inductive Method
The new thinking about Nature
The Question of How and Why

As already noted, it was the Renaissance movement that heralded the beginning of modern science. Scientists like Copernicus, John Kepler, Galilee Galileo, Vesalius and Sir Isaac Newton had made great advances in science. The path breaking study on the helio centric theory by Copernicus embodied in his work ‘On the Revolutions of the Heavenly Bodies’ revolutionised science, more particularly astronomy. His helio centric theory made ripples in the thinking of Europeans. Another book, ‘On the Fabric of Human Body’

By Vesalius opened new vistas in the field of Human anatomy.

Galilee Galileo, the Italian astronomer made perfection in the theory of Copernicus and tried for its popularity. He was one of the first men to use telescope in astronomy. He invented the telescope in 1609, borrowing the techniques of Lens making from a Dutch. He also discovered the laws of Pendulum. Thus the theories of Galileo shook the foundations of Classical Greek astronomy.

The credit for formulating the basic principles of “Mechanics” goes to Galileo and it was Galileo, who identified that Mathematics and Physics are parts of the same knowledge. Hence, he applied the mathematical analysis for the study of motion of bodies in Physics. He initiated a revolution in science that became the foundation of modern science.

The author of Novum Organum, Francis Bacon has the credit for founding Inductive method in science. The French thinker and mathematician, Rene Descartes introduced the theory of Systematic Doubt as the basis of firm knowledge. His book, ‘Discourses on Method’ published in 1637 made ripples in almost all branches of knowledge.

Sir Isaac Newton, the English thinker discovered the Law of Gravitation that revolutionised the study of Nature. He studied how heavenly bodies move according to law of gravitation with the help of mathematical principles.

The contribution of Vesalius in the study of human bodies was another land mark during this period, His seminal work, 'On the fabric of Human Body' published in 1537 embodies his study of human body.

William Harvey discovered the circulation of blood from heart to all parts of body and back to heart. It revolutionised the study of health and diseases and opened new vistas in the field of medical science.

The Scientific Revolution had made significant changes in the 16th and 17th centuries in Europe. Everything was put into scrutiny and accurate scholarship became the hall mark. This led to birth of Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Mathematics and Astronomy separate branches of scientific discipline in Science. It also effected the spirit of rationalism, individualism and scientific temper, which were to revolutionise history and hence the life of the people in the days to come, preferably with the Enlightenment movement.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The term Industrial Revolution was given to the changes that occurred in the structure, organisation and method of production, which in turn revolutionised the life and conditions of the people all around. The term was first used by George Michelet, Jerome- Adolphe Balnqui and Frederich Engels. It was Arnold Joseph Toynbee, the noted English historian, who used the term in English language for the first time. His 'Lectures on the Industrial Revolution in England: Popular Addresses, Notes and Fragments published in 1884, he used the term to describe the changes that occurred in the British industries between 1760 and 1820.

As noted earlier, mechanisation of production was the striking feature of Industrial Revolution, which began in England. It effected drastic changes at various levels; Change from hand work to the use of machines, Change from work at home to work in factories, Technological applications, Water, Steam and later electrical power in the production sector, Changes in transport and communications,

The emergence of new classes- Industrial capitalists and the Proletariat- in society, the change from rural handicraft economy to urban and machine based economy and finally the momentum of urbanisation and the subsequent appearance slums.

Beginnings of Industrial Revolution

It was the Commercial Revolution at the beginning of the modern period that laid the foundation for the Industrial revolution. The commercial class the outcome of

the Commercial revolution amassed immense wealth from the distribution of goods. They were looking for investing this money for making further profits. Thus, they invested this wealth in the productive sector, on which technological innovations were widely applied.

The availability of raw materials from the newly discovered lands acted as a catalyst for the Industrial Revolution. The establishment of colonies in the newly discovered lands also acted as markets for the finished products.

Population increase and the adequate supply of labouring personnel further contributed for the Industrial revolution. By the 18th century, there was increase in population which created a very conducive atmosphere for the beginning of Industrial revolution.

Industrial Revolution and England

For various reasons, Industrial Revolution began in England and it became the birth place of Industrial Revolution.

1. Geographical advantage was one of the prime reasons for its beginning. The geographical location of England, her insular position and the availability of natural resources like coal and iron benefitted England. The insular position did protect England from external attacks and helped to build up a peaceful atmosphere favourable for trade, business and industries.
2. Political stability was another notable factor that favoured the beginning of Industrial Revolution. Unlike the nations of Europe, England witnessed stable government and the absence of internal squabbles in the 18th century. Besides, the government promoted enterprises and followed a industrial friendly policy.
3. Agrarian Revolution in England played a significant part for the beginning of Industrial Revolution. The thrust on scientific farming and related activities provided ample supply of raw materials, the bases of an industry.
4. British colonial system was another notable factor that helped England to the birth place of Industrial Revolution. By the 18th century, England could establish colonies in almost all parts of the globe. This colonial system was moulded in such a manner that along with the easy supply of raw materials required for manufacture of goods, a good market was also created. This advantage favoured England
5. The expansion of markets was yet another reason for the beginning of Industrial Revolution in England. The absence of internal tolls and tariffs, a good network of traffic and transport net work and increase in demand led to the expansion of home market in England in the 18th century. This expansion of markets facilitated her to effect changes in the structure and method of production.

6. The significance of capital was still another factor, which resulted in the Industrial Revolution. Although entered late in the Geographical explorations, the English traders could make huge amount of money from over sea trade and commerce. Thus, this process led to the accumulation of money that the traders wanted to invest to make it capital. Hence, England had enough capital to invest in factories and to make large scale production of goods.

7. The technical knowhow the English also contributed for the Industrial revolution. During the 18th century, the scientists began their inventions, which revolutionise the production that was for markets, home and abroad.

From England, Industrial revolution began to spread into other European nations. The ripples of the revolution were echoed in Belgium, France, Germany and Italy and to a lesser degree in Switzerland.

Technological Innovations

It was with a series of –about 26000- technological innovations that Industrial Revolution began in England. These innovations effected far reaching changes both in industry and infrastructure, hence Industrial Revolution as ‘Technological Revolution’. The Textile Industry was the first to experience the impact of these innovations.

Cotton Textile was the first to undergo changes: and it was in spinning and weaving that new technological inventions were applied

John Kay, in1733, invented the Flying Shuttle, which doubled weaving.

To provide large quantity of yarn, James Hargreaves invented the Spinning Jenny, which speeded up the production of yarn 16 times, though with certain defects.

Working with water power, Richard Arkwright invented the Water Frame in 1769.

This was followed by the invention of Mule by Samuel Crompton in1779. this device was made by combining the positives of Spinning Jenny and Water Frame.

The notable invention was made by Edmund Cartwright, who invented the Power loom that made weaving easy and speedy.

In course of time, innovations were under way to separate cotton from seeds. Thus, Cotton Gin was invented in 1793 by Eli Whitney, an American. In 1846, Sewing Machine came to be used and the credit for its invention goes to Elias Howe.

Industrial Revolution strengthened itself with advances in power technology. In the place of man power and water power, steam power began to be used in mining industries. It was as early as in1697, that Thomas Savery made the model of a steam engine, called Miner’s Friend, for pumping water out of coal mines, for water logging in mines was a severe issue on those days.

The first commercially successful steam engine was invented by Thomas Newcomen in 1712. But the path breaking invention in this regard was by James Watt

in 1769, when he developed a steam engine. He made the steam engine more effective, efficient and less fuel consumptive. The steam engine developed by Watt can be used widely that it could be fitted to any type of machine. Thus, along with its use in coal mines, it had been used in a large scale manner in textile mills and the like. Hence it revolutionised all sectors of production and it launched the Age of Power in history.

The Coal and Iron industries were the most revolutionised sectors in the 18th century, where, although iron was aplenty, its smelting did not undergo much change. With Industrial Revolution, Coal began to be used for iron smelting. Therefore, coal mining began to undergo changes; Safety Lamp and Steam Engine were used for mining, which led to cheap and abundant quantity of coal. In the next stage, after removing the sulphur that contained in charcoal and other impurities, coke was made, which made iron production easy and time saving.

The next landmark in the field of metallurgy was the invention of Blast Furnace, the credit for the invention goes to the Darby's of Shrophire, particularly the First of the family, Abraham Darby. This was in 1709, and followed by the invention of Pudding Furnace and Rolling Mill in 1784 by Henry Cort, These two inventions facilitated the production of sheet iron. This enabled the manufacture of a variety of iron products including railway lines, bridges, chairs, water pipes etc. All these effectively resulted in revolutionising the organisation and method of production.

As already stated, the Industrial Revolution had marked the beginning of factory system. It had passed through three distinctive phases –The Guild System, The Domestic System or Putting –out System and the Urban Factory. The Guild system flourished during the middle ages with its own mechanism of functioning. It was the Commercial revolution that replaced of this system with the Domestic System or Putting –out System. The domestic system was that system in which production was carried out by the artisans in their own homes and raw materials supplied by the merchants and often they provide the tools. But this system was insufficient to meet the growing demand for the goods in the 17th and beginning of the 18th centuries. Hence, the merchants and the middle class were looking for an alternate system, which was found in the factory system. Thus, factories were established and large scale production at low cost and at a short time was done. This was in tune with the Industrial Revolution and to meet the growing demand for finished goods to be sold in all the markets. The basic requirement of a factory is machines and their installation.

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

Industrial Revolution revolutionised transport and communications, for, industrialisation to prosper, needs efficient system of transport to carry raw materials and to take finished goods to markets.

It was Metcalf, Telford and John Mc Adam who were responsible for the introduction of hard surfaced and durable roads. Canal construction got a boost during this period – hence the period from 1788 to 1796 known as ‘Canal – mania.

The next advance in the field was the development of Railways. George Stephenson, who was responsible for the introduction of the first locomotive, known as the Rocket, opened the first railway line in 1825. The first railway passenger service, designed by Stephenson, began in 1830 between Liverpool and Manchester.

The system of Communications also underwent changes during this period. The Telegraph was invented in 1844 and revolutionised the communications sector. Along with this, ‘Penny Post’ was also introduced which made communications cheaper.

IMPERIALISM

Imperialism refers to the dominance of one nation over the political, social, economic and of course, the cultural life of the other nation or country. It is modern enterprise that can be effected either through military means, or through other means including ideology and through colonialism. It was the product of capitalism and it works with a dominant – subordinate relationship, hence the nation with dominance is called ‘Metropolis’, meaning mother country. The subordinated country has to undergo constant exploitation, which is the striking feature of imperialism. The exploitation can be done through many ways and forms and exploitation of the natural resources including land and people and exploitation through the sale of finished products in the markets are the hallmarks.

Many factors had contributed for the development of imperialism. Capitalism, more particularly, industrial capitalism was the major factor for its development. In the search for markets and for raw materials as well as for maximising profits, it is mandatory to have subordinated areas. Therefore these phenomena and the ensuing material gains played a vital role in the development of imperialism.

In the next place, missionary activities and the civilising mission and its ideology also facilitated its growth. The Christian missionaries in their bid to spread to religion played a crucial role in cementing imperialism. The ideology of civilising and the superiority of the Europeans also contributed for its development. The Europeans considered and openly declared that it was their responsibility to civilise the backward people and it was their burden – White man’s Burden.

Moreover, by the beginning of the 19th century, establishing colonies was considered as national pride which in turn led to colonialism and hence imperialism.

The above process has to be analysed in its political background. Establishing colonies had become one of the prime concerns of the administration of the period. This

polity had spent huge of the purse for military, for which colonies and their resources were mandatory that resulted in the setting for imperialism.

The imperialism had and continues to undergo changes in its history, the phase of new imperialism, which began in the 1880s, was more pervasive and had vigorous territorial acquisitions, which amount to three times than the old practice. Thus the Third world countries had experienced the ramifications of imperialism the most specimen was Africa and certain Asian countries.

Colonial Plunder

Plunder of the colonies in the Africa, Asia and Americas was the main outcome of Colonialism. Along with, almost total destruction of the indigenous mode of life of the people in these colonies, severe and systematic expropriation of the resources and wealth of the people was the far reaching results of the process of colonialism. In the name of modernity, they introduced certain amount of modern infrastructure, but these systems of modernity were only for the interests of the Metropolis. This amounted to plunder at its maximum and the economies of the colonies were paralysed in the course of colonial enterprise.

MODULE III

DEVELOPMENT OF DEMOCRACY

The modern phase of historical development has been characterised by the decline of Feudalism and its ideologies, and development of democratic process in European history. The question of civil liberties, human rights, social and economic equity, political representation etc has been rightly addressed with the setting up of democratic process. The emergence of middle class in almost nations of Europe and its thirst for peaceful atmosphere contributed for strengthening the authority of monarch, which in turn destroyed feudal political power structure. This process enabled the middle class to gain political power, which facilitated the development of democracy.

In the development of democracy, three revolutions of the 17th and 18th – the English Revolution of 1688, the American War of Independence of 1776 and the French Revolution of 1789 – played a vital role. The ideals of these revolutions were amply supported by the Civil Rights Movements and processes of unification of Italy and Germany.

THE ENGLISH REVOLUTION OR THE GLORIOUS REVOLUTION

It was the question –the question of supreme authority of the state, the king or parliament – of political supremacy that led to the English Revolution and resulted in the victory of parliament over monarchy. It was a bourgeois revolution that tried for the destruction of feudalism in England. The Stuart dynasty was established in 1603, following the Tudor dynasty and all the Stuart monarchs believed in absolutism and did not consider the parliament in running the administration. There were severe differences between the Stuart Kings and the parliament at three levels – on religion, on finance and on foreign policy. These issues culminated in the Glorious Revolution of 1688.

Factors Responsible for the Revolution

The Stuart monarchs were the upholders of the Divine Right of Kingship. According to this theory, kings were considered as the representatives of God on earth; hence they were responsible only to God, not to the people. It was in this background that, the political aspirations and ambitions of the newly emerged Middle Class began to clash with the absolutist policies of the Stuarts. Thus all the Stuart rulers were absolutist rulers and although there was parliament, they never consulted the parliament with regard to administrative policies. It all began with the accession of James I as the first Stuart ruler in 1603 and it continued during the reign of his successor Charles I. James I

ruled over up to 1625. As stated earlier the main contentions were in the field of religion, finance and foreign policy.

In the matter of religion, the rulers of the Stuart dynasty were Catholics and they followed anti puritan policy; for, the puritans were a Protestant group. They followed a pro Catholic policy and as part of it, relaxed laws against the Catholics and appointed Catholics to high posts both in the administration and in Universities. This attitude and policy of the Stuart dynasts were vehemently opposed by the Parliament, which had puritans as majority.

There were major contentions in matters of finance as well. The Stuart rulers imposed taxes without the consent of the parliament; levied certain illegal taxes, and extorted loans from the middle class. Those who refused to obey were fined or imprisoned. Thus the whole burden of taxation and other illegal impositions fell on mostly on the middle class, who represented the Parliament.

In matters of foreign policy as well, there were differences of opinion. The monarchs followed a pro Catholic foreign policy and wanted to keep a cordial relation with catholic countries of Europe like Spain and France; whereas, the parliament wanted to keep friendship with Protestant countries such as Holland and Protestant principalities of Germany. This bone of contention naturally resulted in the struggle between the King and the Parliament.

All these factors, firstly, led to what we denote in history, in the signing of the Petition of Rights in 1628 by Charles I. Even after this, he followed his absolutism and he dissolved the Parliament, fed up with its criticism. He ruled without a parliament for continuous eleven years, hence in history, it is known as Eleven Years' Tyranny. But in 1640, due to financial compulsions, Charles was forced to convene the meeting of the parliament. The parliament passed an act which forbade the king from dissolving the parliament without the consent of the parliament. The king began to seek alternate means and he decided to defend the parliament with force, which resulted in the civil war. The parliament which the king convened was officially never ended, hence, it was known as the Long Parliament, which was officially in session for twenty years.

Thus the civil war broke out in 1642. The supporters of the king were called the Cavaliers, which included the nobility, the Anglican clergy and the Roman Catholics. Those who supported the parliament were the Roundheads that included the new gentry and the puritans. The leader of the Roundheads was Oliver Cromwell. In the end, control of the sea, possession of greater economic resources, superior general ship and the alliance with the Scots helped the Roundheads to defeat the Cavaliers. The civil war ended in 1648, and the king Charles I was publicly executed in 1649.

The abolition of monarchy and House of Lords by the parliament was one of the outcomes of the Civil War. This made England a Republic under a new government. It was known as the Commonwealth, which ruled over England from 1649 to 1660. It was headed by Oliver Cromwell, who ruled dictatorially up to 1658 and succeeded by Richard Cromwell. The conflict between these two with the parliament resulted in the restoration of monarchy in England in 1660.

Thus restored the Stuart dynasty in 1660, when Charles II, the son of the Charles I was officially invited by the parliament and made the king. This was known as the Restoration, which was not merely the restoration of monarchy but that of House of Lords and Anglican Church and Charles II ruled from 1660 to 1685.

In the beginning of his reign, there were no confrontations between him and the parliament. But, in course of time, he asserted his authority and did not take the parliament in to confidence in running the administration. He was succeeded by his brother James II. It was during his rule that the English Revolution broke out. He tried to make the monarch supreme in all aspects of administration and to re-establish Catholicism in England. His pro Catholic policies led to the placement of Catholics to key civil and military posts and appointed Catholics to important posts in the University of Oxford. He cancelled the laws against Catholics and the Dissenters under the Two Declarations of Indulgence issued in 1687 and 1688 respectively. He made the latter Indulgence mandatory to be read in all churches and those who objected to it were subjected to trail for sedition.

But, all of his administrative measures and policies were tolerated by the people under the belief that he would be succeeded by his daughters Mary or Annie, both Protestants. But, in June 1688, a son was born to him in his second wife and this opened the possibility of catholic dominance in polity, for his second wife was a staunch Catholic. This unexpected situation compelled the parliament to sink all differences and unite for removing James II, and the Parliament invited Mary and her husband William of Orange to the rulers of England. Accepting the invitation, both came with an army in November 1688, but there was no retort from James II, who fled to France in December 1688. Thus, without a war, change in policy was effected, hence this event is known as the Glorious Revolution or the Bloodless Revolution or the English Revolution of 1688.

This revolution was instrumental in bringing changes in political field. In the place of absolute monarchy, Constitutional monarchy was brought in and discarded the Divine Right Theory of Monarchy. It resulted in the formulation of the Bill of Rights of 1689.

It also resulted in ending the long quarrel between the king and parliament and led to the victory of parliament over monarchy. This paved the way for the ultimate destruction of feudalism.

The end of feudalism brought forth changes in the socio- economic fabric of England and laid foundation for the Commercial and Industrial Revolutions. This stable political atmosphere was to make changes in the centuries to come in England.

The long term impact of the Revolution is that it inspired other revolutions of the world. It had its ripples in the American Revolution and French Revolution. The ideals of Constitutional monarchy greatly influenced the thinking and political ideals of the leaders of both these revolutions.

John Locke had played an instrumental role in the ideology of the English revolution and it is often stated that Bill of rights was Lockean in character. Locke was an influential thinker of the 17th century who upheld the theory of Social Contract.

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

The American Revolution or the American War of Independence was a revolt of 13 colonies against their mother country, Britain for attaining independence which led to the establishment of the United States of America, better the US. It was the first successful bourgeois revolution of the world and set a new pattern for the liberation of colonial states of Latin America, Asia and Africa.

American Revolution: Its Background

The outcome of the British colonial policy, the American Revolution has its unique place in the history of Freedom struggle in the world. The colonial policy of the mother country was the major factor responsible for the revolution. Although, the colonies each had their own local assembly and legal system, these colonies had to experience the outcome of the colonial mercantilist policy that was primarily for the benefit of the mother country. As part of this, Britain had passed a series of commercial and trade acts. These acts are known as Navigation Acts and were for controlling the commerce and trade of the colonies. The basic provision of the acts was that these colonies had to trade in British ships, only with Britain. Thus they were forbidden to use non British ships. They were also not permitted to manufacture certain products like textiles that would compete with those produced in the mother country. This was furthered by the compulsion that these would only be imported from Britain. Thus the navigation acts made a curb on the economic development of the colonies.

At the beginning of the second half of the 18th century, particularly after the Seven Years' War -1756 -1763- Britain tried to enforce these acts very strictly along

with the imposition of taxes. Hence to stabilise her own economy, Britain enacted a number of acts to raise revenue from the colonies.

The first act was the Revenue Act of 1764, generally known as the Sugar Act, which imposed duty on the import of sugar by the colonists.

Followed by this, in 1765, Britain passed the Stamp Act, by which Britain imposed direct tax for the first time. Thus, stamp duty on all business transactions was imposed. They were forced to affix revenue stamps on all legal documents, licenses, newspapers, pamphlets and other papers.

In 1767, the British passed the Townshend Acts that imposed taxes on consumer goods like paper, glass, tea and paints that were imported to the colonies.

All these provoked the colonists, who vehemently protested primarily against the Stamp act. The protests were characterised by killing of tax collectors in many towns and the lawyers and editors of newspapers questioning government through writings and public protests. Their sloganeering, 'Taxation without representation is Tyranny' not only inspired the colonists but brought them to the streets. In October 1765, a Stamp Act Congress was convened in New York. This compelled the authorities to withdraw the act in March 1766. But through another act, the Declaratory Act, in principle, Britain asserted her power to impose tax on the colonists.

Along with these, the ideological contributions of Thomas Paine and Thomas Jefferson also accelerated the process. Through his pamphlet, *The Common Sense*, Paine stood for independence and he openly ridiculed the irrationality of an island nation, England in ruling a continent like America.

The leadership of George Washington had its role in the revolution. He could unite almost all people under one umbrella against the mother country.

This was followed by protests against the Townshend Act and these protests forced the government to repeal the Act except on Tea.

This again provoked the colonists, whose principled stand made the government thinking. The government in turn wanted to assert its power to impose taxes and sell its large stock of tea to the colonists. These measures of the mother country made the people furious and resolutions against tax on tea by local assemblies gained momentum, which resulted in the boycott of tea. Then, the people came in to action, preventing the unloading of tea in the ports of the thirteen colonies. Thus, on 16th December 1773, a group of colonists, disguised as Red Indians, boarded the British ships anchored at Boston harbour and threw away 342 chests of tea into the Atlantic Ocean. This incident is known as 'Boston Tea Party' that actually started the revolution.

The Boston Tea Party incident made the government to go for stringent measures and as a result, Britain brought in a series of Coercive Acts or Intolerable Acts to punish the revolutionaries. But the revolutionaries went ahead with their activities. Thus, 'Committees of Correspondences' were set up and those who were critical of the British were stationed all over the colonies. This was followed by the decision to organise continental congress to plan unified and concerted action against the mother country.

Thus, the First Continental Congress was convened at Philadelphia in September 1774. Besides making an appeal to the British Crown to remove restrictions on industries and trade, it declared not to impose taxes without the consent of the colonists. This was seen by the Crown as an act of rebellion.

It was in this context that the Second Continental Congress was held in May 1775. It was very instrumental in the American Revolution, because it was this Congress that resolved to form an organised army, known as the Continental Army under the command of George Washington. It also sent an 'Olive Branch Petition' to the British Crown, George III expressing the desire for peace. It also demanded the protection of their rights as British citizens. The King never looked at the Petition, but deputed a posse of 30000 hired German troops to fight the colonists.

Meanwhile the colonists were divided over the question of revolution. One group stood for non cession from the mother country, and they were called Loyalists. The other group wanted independence and were called Patriots, who were highly motivated and oriented by the philosophy of Thomas Paine. The writings of Paine made the people convinced that they have every right to get independence from Great Britain. Thus with this Congress, the struggle got momentum not for reform but for independence.

On July 14th, 1776 the Congress adopted the historic Declaration of Independence, which was the seminal work of Thomas Jefferson. The significance of this document is that it bluntly stated that all men are born equal and hence they are endowed with certain inalienable rights. These include right to life, liberty and happiness, which even today are foundations of basic human rights. It also affirmed the right of the people to form their own government. The document further stated that the colonies had the right to be 'free and independent states absolved from all allegiance to the British crown'.

This paved the way for war between the British and colonists. The colonists were led by George Washington and the war continued for seven years, the British army was led by none other than Lord Cornwallis. The people rallied around Washington, who was selflessly assisted and supported by Benjamin Franklin, James Madison and Alexander Hamilton. The war came to an end in 1781 with the victory of the colonists.

The war formally concluded with the Treaty of Paris signed in 1783 by which Britain recognised the independence of the thirteen colonies.

With this, a new nation was born, the United States of America. The Articles of Confederation, the first constitution, although a failure was rectified and later in 1789, the USA became a republic. The first written republican constitution came into effect and George Washington became the first president on 30th April 1789.

In the history of American Revolution, the name of Thomas Jefferson stands unique, for, he was instrumental in the birth of the USA. His intellectual calibre led to his appointment to the five member committee to prepare a formal declaration of independence document. He made the first draft that was unanimously selected and the Declaration of Independence is Jeffersonian in character.

It is this document that made Jefferson immortal in the annals of history. It is his seminal contribution to modern political thought and philosophy. It is a remarkable piece of democratic philosophy in the sense that it asserted the sovereignty of the people and the first dictum, “all men are created equal”. It consists of three parts: the first part deals with political philosophy, the second is concerned with charges against the British Crown and the third with the solemn statement of independence. He concludes the document with an assertive; whenever any form of government becomes destructive to the basic rights of the people. It is the right of the people to alter or abolish it, and to institute a new government. Thus, he highlighted the principles of peoples’ democracy and modern political philosophy.

He was also responsible for making the constitution republican in nature. He stood for the principle of the liberty of the individual and creation of a society based on equality and freedom of the people. His concept democracy and republicanism inspired not only the colonists but the coming generations as well.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION OF 1789

The French Revolution was the bloodiest and a violent revolution the world had experienced till the 18th century. The three slogans of equality, Fraternity and liberty by which the revolution was fought become the corner stone for the days to come. It was revolt to do away with the despotism of the Bourbons and age old feudal order of France. It was bourgeois revolution for destroying the old Order and the age old political economy of France and tried to establish a new social and political order based on modern principles of state. It was a revolution, denoted as the ‘revolution of revolutions’, for, its longer impact on the world and is a world revolution.

The causes for the revolution were manifold: political, social, economic, intellectual and others.

Politically, France was ruled by the Bourbon dynasty, the rulers of this dynasty were autocrats and despots. The despotism of the Bourbons reached its climax under Louis XIV, who openly declared: 'I am the State'. This autocracy of the rulers consequently led to the disappearance of the popular assemblies. The feudal parliament, the Estates General was never summoned since 1614. It was during the reign of Louis XVI that the revolution broke out. He was more or less controlled by his wife Marie Antoinette, who spent huge purse on festivities and nepotism was her hallmark. People were imprisoned without trial indefinitely. Hence the political rights of the people were on papers. Adding to this, the bureaucracy was incompetent and inefficient, but much expensive. Almost all of them had either bought the offices or inherited. Thus bureaucracy was characterised by nepotism, favouritism and extravagance. In the midst of these, common people were on the streets.

The society was so unequal that there were three separate estates; the first, the second and the third estate. The Clergy was the first and was the privileged. They were attached to the church and they were a state within the state, their own administrative machinery and court of law. They owned 1/5 of the total land in France, while they were only 3 % of the population. They rolled in luxury and they were exempted from all taxes.

The second estate, the Nobility was like the Clergy, the privileged. They monopolised all the high ranking positions in the army, administration and judiciary, most of the positions were hereditary or purchased. They owned ¼ of the land and exempted from all taxes. Extravaganza was the order of their life.

The Common People, the third estate, was the rest and had no privileges. They were 95% of the population. This estate consists of the bourgeoisie, the artisans and the peasants. The bourgeois class consisted of the educated groups like doctors, judges, lawyers, teachers and civil servants and the rich people like the merchants, bankers and the manufacturers.

Although rich, the bourgeoisie had no rights and they were unprivileged. They were excluded from the decision making processes of administration and were denied access in to the government. Thus, their self respect and esteem were out of question and hence they had been looking for a opportunity to topple the system.

The artisans and city workers were a poor lot, in the sense that they had to work for long hours, in miserable circumstances with very low wages. Mobility, and the freedom to form trade unions were not permitted. This unprivileged lot had to pay huge taxes and lived poverty.

The peasants, 80% of the population were landless or had small holdings had no lives of their own. They were left to the mercy of the other two estates. They were compelled

to pay all the taxes, not only to the state, but to the Clergy and Nobility as well. The land tax, known as the 'Taille' was only on their shoulders along with forced labour. Thus, they had a poverty stricken life.

The economy of France was characterised by fiscal mismanagement and maladministration. It was on the brink of collapse and in acute state of bankruptcy. During the period of Louis XVI, there was not enough money in the exchequer. People were on the streets demanding food.

In the ideological or at the intellectual level, French revolution was orchestrated by a group of philosophers, who were popularisers. The people were well oriented by the Enlightenment ideas of reason, secularism, democracy and progress. The people were made aware of the dangers of despotism, monarchy and feudal anarchy. It was this intellectual background that prepared the ground for the revolution,

The philosophers, Voltaire, Montesquieu and Rousseau had a formidable influence on the people. Voltaire (1694 – 1778), the champion of political, religious and intellectual liberty attacked the corruption in administration and the Church. As a champion of civil liberties, Voltaire stood for freedom of expression and he openly stated that all religions had taught man not to be happy and by this he ridiculed the Church. His attack on the nobility and the clergy awakened the people for revolution.

Montesquieu, the author of the Spirit of Laws made an abiding influence on the French public. As a staunch critic of authoritarianism, he stood for separation of powers. He summed his theory of Separation of Powers in his book The Spirit of Laws and openly justified constitutional monarchy as the ideal form of government.

Rousseau, an important proponent of the theory of social contract, convinced himself with his idea of sovereignty of the people and political equality of the citizens inspired the French revolution. He publicly declared the peoples' right to topple the tyranny in any form and oriented the people to fight against the despotism of the Bourbons of France. His Contract Social was instrumental in shaping the destiny of the revolution.

Along with the philosophers, the French people were inspired by the economic theories of Physiocrats and the ideas of Encyclopaedists. The former stood for the economic doctrine of Laissez Faire and denounced mercantilism. This doctrine of free trade influenced the Bourgeois revolutionaries of France. The latter also oriented the people with encyclopaedia of knowledge. These ideas were ably supported by thinkers like Condorcet, Malby, Holbach and Helvitus, who had contributed their share in shaping the revolution.

The impetus from the American Revolution cannot go unnoticed in the outbreak of the French revolution. The French soldiers had extended support for the success of the

American Revolution. The French soldiers were influenced by the political theories of Thomas Paine and Thomas Jefferson.

The French revolution began with the convening of the Estates General by Louis XVI, for want of money in May 1789. It was the immediate provocation for the revolution. This feudal assembly was represented by the three estates each. When it was convened, instead of meeting jointly, the first two estates insisted on separate meeting. This provoked the members of the third estate, who quickly declared themselves as the National Assembly and met on 17th June 1789.

Soon, Louis XVI tried in vain to punish the third estate by closing the doors of the hall, where they usually meet. Hearing this, the members swiftly moved to the nearby Royal Tennis Court and made the pledge that they will return home only after drafting the new constitution of France. This incident in French history is known as the Oath of Tennis Court.

Meanwhile, the king made another attempt by organising troops to suppress the National Assembly. Further, he dismissed Necker, one of the popular ministers. This provoked the people of the capital and they joined together and opened the doors of the Bastille, the royal state prison and the epitome of royal tyranny. From Paris, the revolt spread to all parts of France, where common people, particularly the peasants made rebellions and it became mob rebellion.

When revolution broke out, four institutions piloted in the following order: the National Assembly, the Legislative Assembly, the National Convention and the Directory. The National Assembly dominated the first phase, which started with the fall of Bastille. The Assembly made legal steps for the abolition of feudalism and serfdom. In the political field, it was this Assembly that passed the famous Declaration of Rights of Man and Citizen. This document proclaimed liberty, equality, right to resist oppression and freedom of expression. It also made the secularisation of Church possible. The National Assembly framed the constitution of France in 1791. It set up constitutional monarchy and power was delegated to a single chambered council called the Legislative Assembly.

Legislative Assembly was a radical one and succeeded the National assembly in October 1791. The Jacobins and the Girondists dominated the Assembly. This period also witnessed the formation of a European coalition under Austria against the revolution. This resulted in the attack of royal palace and the arrest of the members of the royal family. The radicals compelled the Legislative Assembly to suspend monarchy and create a new legislature, thus formed the National Convention.

The National Convention was formed in 1792 and it was office till 1795. It abolished monarchy in France and she was made a republic. Applying the sword of

treason, both the king and the queen were brought under trial and consequently both of them were executed in January 1793. This incident sent shocks among the rulers of Europe. They, once again united against the revolutionaries in France. Thus, the revolutionaries had to confront challenges from within and outside. This compelled the Convention to set up a Committee of Public Safety to meet the exigencies.

The Committee of Public Safety was first headed by Danton, who was a moderate. Hence, Robespierre was installed in the place of Danton. Robespierre, a staunch revolutionary and a member of the Jacobins, followed a policy of extremism and hunted the enemies of the revolution. Mass execution of the suspected enemies of the revolution made the revolution bloodiest. The Guillotine was widely used for killing those, who disagreed with the functioning of the Convention. Thus, it was actually a state terrorism and hence, it was known as the Reign of Terror. It lasted from January 1793 to July 1794, and during this period Danton himself became a victim.

The public opinion began to turn against Robespierre, who was deposed and guillotined on 27th July 1794, marking the end of the reign of Terror and the Committee of Public Safety. According to the French Revolutionary calendar, this incident occurred on the 9th day of the 11th month, Thermidor and hence, it is known as the Thermidorean Reaction in French history.

But the idea of the republicanism did not fade away. The National Convention completed the task of framing a republican constitution and as a result, a legislative body consisting of two houses was formed. But the executive power was vested in a committee of five members called the Directory.

After dissolving the Convention in October 1795, the Directory took charge of the administration and it ruled up to 1799. This phase was marked by rampant corruption, nepotism and inefficiency, which led to downfall. Thus, Napoleon Bonaparte came to the scene and he overthrew the Directory in November 1799. Napoleon became the emperor of France in 1804, after framing a new constitution. Although monarchy was restored, the spirit of republicanism persisted in the polity of France.

RESULTS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

The French Revolution effected far reaching consequences in almost all walks of life in France. It also made the impact felt on the world as a whole.

The significant result of the revolution was the destruction of feudalism in France. Though the revolution was not a success, concrete steps were undertaken for abolishing feudalism and serfdom and orienting France to a new social order based on industrial capitalism.

It brought in the separation of the church and the state. Religion had been separated from politics and made the secularisation of the polity possible.

In the political field, it led to the destruction of the age old Bourbon dynasty of France. It also did away with the divine theory of kingship.

At the global level, the French Revolution gave new meaning to term 'Nation'. With the revolution, Nation denotes not the territory, in which people live, but the people themselves. The people became the source of all authority and they constitute the supreme power. To put it in another way, the government derives its power and authority from the will of the people and it is answerable to the people. It bluntly stated that no ruler is above the people, cementing the relevance of the people in making a nation.

The French Revolution heralded the basic rights of human beings with the passing of the Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen. The slogan of Equality, Fraternity and Liberty inspired and continues to inspire millions of common people in realising their right to live and live in happiness.

It became a source of inspiration for similar revolutionary movements not only in France, but in other parts of the globe as well. The impetus of the Revolution was felt throughout the 19th century struggles for independence and freedom. It inspired the left wing movements across the world for fighting against injustice and marginalisation.

ABOLITION OF SLVERY IN THE U S

The 19th century of the US witnessed a strong movement for the accomplishment of civil liberties and political rights. The conflicting interests and travails of the people of the North and those of the South culminated themselves in to a bloody Civil War in 1861, during the president ship of Abraham Lincoln, the well known president the US. It began over the question slavery, which was rampant in the Southern States.

As a practice, slavery had existed in the 13 colonies. It all began when the first African slaves were brought in to Virginia, one of the 13 colonies, in 1619 by Dutch traders. But, when they become independent, slavery had proven unprofitable in the North and was ceasing to exist. The South also experienced decrease in slavery due to the fluctuation in the prices of tobacco. By the beginning of the 19th century, with the invention of Cotton Gin in 1793 and with commercialisation of cotton production, slavery got boost, when the cultivation of cotton became highly profitable in the South. In course of time, cotton became the main cash crop in the South replacing tobacco and economy of the South thrived on the cultivation of cotton. Thus, to increase the cultivation of cotton, it was mandatory for the South to defend slavery by the second half of the 19th century.

The blunt justification of slavery came not only from the political leaders but even from most of the clergy and professional groups. They legitimised slavery on the

ground that feed, clothe and provide occupation to the black people and the children, who were incapable of living for themselves. This justification had been ratified quoting Bible that certain people were liable to do servile labour. This also amounts to treating the black people as inferior race. Thus, slavery had become an integral part of the lives of the South.

The life of the slaves was so miserable that they had no basic rights, right to dignified life, right to read and write and right to mobility. The ill treatment of the slaves along with their women and children was the order of the day. Slave trade was a practice not to be questioned and inhuman practices for fully exploiting the labour of the slaves were not unheard of.

The worst condition of the slaves opened the eyes of many a progressive thinker. They protested against the inhuman practice and the first victory came in 1808, when the Congress prohibited the import of African slaves to the US. Following this, another movement began, known as the Quakers Movement that stood for the emancipation of slaves. This movement requested the authorities to abolish slavery as it was against the ethos of the US constitution. Thus, by the 1830s, anti slavery movement gathered momentum even in the South and this group made a distinction from others. Hence they were called the Abolitionists and they formed many Abolitionist Societies and these societies sincerely worked for the eliminating slavery.

It was in the North that anti slavery movement became so wide spread that by 1830, it became a militant movement. One of the leaders of the movement, William Lloyd Garrison started the First Anti Slavery Newspaper called 'The Liberator', through which Garrison exposed the evils of Slavery. This led to get ample support to protect the slaves from the oppression and inhumane exploitation of their masters. The question of protecting the slaves eventually led to the fleeing of slaves in to the North and Canada. An elaborate network of secret routes was set up for this purpose which came to be called ' Underground Railroad'. This led to the protest of Southerners and they demanded the intervening of the government for their right to maintain slaves.

The anti slavery movement was furthered by the contribution from literary figures. Litterateurs like Emerson, Lowell and Longfellow penned down their anguish against slavery. The Uncle Tom's Cabin, the well known novel written by Mrs. Harriot Beecher Stowe demonstrated the plight of the slaves and this composition generated much resentment against slavery in the US.

Now the situation was ripe for open conflict between the Abolitionists and the Pro Slavery Groups. The former's concerted efforts alarmed the latter, who protested in vain and argued that the economy of the South will collapse if slavery is banned. By 1845, over the question of the spread of slavery, certain conditions were laid down.

These include whether the new states that desired to join the Union should be admitted as a slave free or slave state generated heated debates and these debates made the two – the North and the South on the verge of conflicts. Ultimately the government intervened and ordered that the states can decide themselves over the question of slavery.

The next important phase of question of slavery began in 1853, when Kansas wanted to be the part of the US. Within Kansas, people were divided on the issue, one group supporting slavery, the other group opposing it. This resulted in widespread conflicts, in which many people lost their lives and accordingly Kansas began to be denoted as ‘Bleeding Kansas’. Finally, Kansas was admitted to the Union, as a ‘Free State’, alarming the South.

The final event over the question of slavery was the formation of the Republican Party in 1854. The Party’s principled stand of opposing the extension of slavery created apprehension and resentment among the people of the South. Abraham Lincoln and William Seward headed the Party, with their severe attack on the inhumane nature of slavery.

This was followed by the ‘Dredscot’ incident’. Dredscot was a Negro slave living in Missouri, one of the Southern states. When this slave was taken to the Northern states of Illinois and Wisconsin by his military surgeon and both of them lived there, and after return, Dredscot approached the Supreme Court and sued for liberation. The Court dominated by Southerners, declared that slavery was legal and he had no right to be free. But the Northerners protested against this verdict that intensified the conflict over the question of slavery.

It was the election of Abraham Lincoln as the president of the US in 1860 under the Republican Party banner that gave an immediate twist to the issue. As the champion of democracy and a strong crusader against slavery, Lincoln declared that the abolition of slavery had become inevitable. As a result, the Southern states, viz, South Carolina, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, Texas and Louisiana seceded from the Union. They formed the Confederate States of America and elected Jefferson Davis as the president. This formal division into the Union and the Confederate States led to the civil war, which continued for four years.

In the initial stages of the war, the Confederate States could achieve significant victories over the Union army. But the diplomacy of Abraham Lincoln enabled the Union States to gain victory. As part of the diplomacy, Lincoln issued the famous Emancipation Proclamation of slaves in September 1862 and freed all slaves in the Southern states. Thus, with this, the civil war against secession turned out in to a war for “a new birth of freedom”. Now the war turned in favour of the Union States and Lincoln

recognised that Emancipation Proclamation should be followed by constitutional amendments to accomplish the abolition of slavery.

The 13th Amendment to the American constitution was introduced by the Republican Party and it was passed by the Congress on 31st January 1865 and formally ratified on 6th December 1865. With this constitutional solution, slavery was officially done away with, with the victory for the Union States.

Consequent on this amendment, thousands of slaves were freed and they were given citizenship, civil liberty with other citizens and the right to vote. But the negative results of the emancipation were that the liberated slaves became jobless, homeless and poverty stricken. The end of the age old system of slavery did not improve the lives of the slaves. They had to wait for another century to get their rights fully accomplished, thanks to the untiring efforts of Martin Luther King. But this was an important landmark in the evolution of democratic rights in the US.

PROCESSES OF UNIFICATION

Even in the 19th century, although nationalism was in its peak, there were two geographical expressions desiring for unifications – Italy and Germany. As the home of Renaissance, due to many historical reasons Italy could not accomplish her unification, while, Germany the centre of the Reformation movement could not become a nation state even at the beginning of the second half of the 19th century. It was left to the revolutionaries and national figures to realise the processes of unifications by 1870-71.

UNIFICATION OF ITALY

Italy was ‘Geographical Expression’ even in the 19th century, for, Italy had been divided into number of principalities with their own individual governments. Italy lacked unity in all fields. Even the Italian language had not acquired one common form as there were many local and regional variations. The best specimen was the language of Tuscany, the Tuscan language. It was in this context that Napoleon brought Italy under his control and created the kingdom of Italy by uniting all the provinces and applied his code for legalities. This, in turn led to the emergence of national consciousness among the Italians.

After the fall of Napoleon, the Congress of Vienna held in 1815 dissolved the kingdom of Italy and divided Italy into eight small states. They were
The kingdom of two Sicilies consisting Naples and Sicily were placed under the Bourbon dynasty of France
The Papal States in central Italy with Vatican as capital under the direct rule of the Pope

The three kingdoms in the North, the kingdom of Modena, Parma and Tuscany put under the Austrian princes

The two provinces of Lombardi and Venetia in the North east placed under the rule of the Austria

The kingdom of Sardinia including Piedmont remained independent

These divisions again made Italy politically disunited and there was no scope for integration of these states, for, Austrian dominance was cemented in most of the areas. In these circumstances, the first step towards unification was done by Risorgimento, a liberation movement in Italy. It was political and social movement for the unification of Italy. Their first revolt was targeted against Austrian domination and they could achieve unity among Italian to certain extent.

The partial success of the movement attracted the attention of the masses, which began to come together for a united Italy. Owing to the mass participation, various means were suggested for unification. Among these, three deserve special mention. They were (1) the radical programme of the idealistic patriot Mazzini, with his emphasis on popular sovereignty and universal suffrage (2) the federation of Italian states under Papal presidency as envisaged by Gioberti, a Catholic priest and (3) the use of Piedmont's army effecting unification.

After 1815, many secret societies started working for the unification. One of these societies was the Carbonari Society of the Southern Italy. It started a movement to attain freedom from foreign yoke and organised several unsuccessful revolts. It was in this circumstance that Mazzini, who is known as the Heart of the unification, Cavour, the Brain and Garibaldi, the Sword of the unification came to the scene and led the processes of unification.

Giuseppe Mazzini was a Genoan revolutionary and staunch nationalist. He joined the Carbonari Society and involved himself in revolutionary activities. He was arrested and imprisoned in 1831 for his participation in a revolt and after his release; he founded a new organisation for unification, known as the 'Young Italy'. It was his strong faith in the power of the youth that he started the organisation and almost all the youth rallied around him. Through his articles, Mazzini appealed to the youth for working for the liberation of their country and consequently it became a mass movement. It was his zeal that made the unification a political issue in Italy.

By heart, Mazzini was a republican and he believed in the equality of people. He organised people under the organisation by two means: providing political education and organising popular insurrections. As part of the latter, he organised a successful rebellion in Rome and as a result the Pope was compelled to leave Rome and a republic was established by Mazzini. But in course of time, Pope restored Rome with the support

of French army and Mazzini had to flee and take refuge in Britain. In exile, he inspired the people of Italy through his writings, and it was his ideological base which laid the growth of nationalism in Italy.

Count di Cavour was the chief minister of Sardinia –Piedmont under Victor Emmanuel II and played a crucial role in the unification of Italy. Before becoming the chief minister, Cavour served the Sardinian army for a while. He travelled widely in Europe that enabled him to imbibe liberal and rational ideas. He was greatly influenced by the constitutional monarchy of England, which he regarded as the ideal form of government. He was a secularist, monarchist and a ardent opponent of revolution, republicanism, socialism and anti rationalism.

Influenced by the ideology of Risorgimento of Italy, he became the editor of a newspaper titled II Risorgimento. This newspaper stood against the foreign domination of Italy and suggested the unity of rulers of small principalities as the remedy to overthrow the Austrian foreign rule.

When he became the chief minister, Cavour outlined the practical programme of Italian unification under his state, the kingdom of Sardinia and Piedmont. He was fully aware of the limitations of Italians and recommended economic and military strength along with foreign support for overthrowing the Austrian rule in effecting the unification. As the first step, he initiated economic reforms and organised an army, known as the Liberation army to fight the Austrians. To get foreign help, Cavour formally entered in to a treaty of mutual co operation with France in 1858, by which France agreed to offer military assistance against Austria.

These developments alarmed Austria, which ordered the disarmament of Sardinia in 1859. Cavour challenged this order and provoked Austria to declare war on Sardinia. Eventually, war broke out and resulted in the victory of Sardinia. The war fetched Sardinia Lombardy, but could not annex Venetia, which was still under Austria. This victory inspired the people of Parma, Modena and Tuscany. The rulers of these principalities with the support of the people expelled the Austrian princes and became independent. After a plebiscite, these principalities voluntarily joined Sardinia. Thus, the first stage of Italian unification was completed. Meanwhile, Garibaldi succeeded in liberating the Kingdom of two Sicilies and Cavour took the risk of forging a united Italy with his king Victor Emmanuel II as the ruler. But he could not accomplish the annexation of Venetia and Rome to Italy.

Giuseppe Garibaldi, better known as the ‘Sword of Italian unification’ was the disciple of Mazzini and a member of the Young Italy. He believed in republican ideology and was a fighter and patriot, who sacrificed everything for achieving the unification of Italy. His activities marked the second stage of Italian unification. He

actively participated in all the revolts plotted by Young Italy and he was imprisoned and sentenced to death in 1834 for taken part in the revolt in Genoa. But he escaped from prison in 1836 and fled to South America, where he spent 12 years of his life. From South America, he helped Uruguay to obtain her independence with his guerrilla tactics.

In 1848, he returned to Italy and helped Sardinia to get victory over Austria. Garibaldi then went to Rome to defend Mazzini's republic from the French troops sent by Louis Napoleon to restore the Papal authority. It was a failure and he fled to South America again.

When the efforts for Italian unification were gaining momentum, Garibaldi returned to Italy in 1859. He raised a posse of one thousand volunteers to fight independence, called the Red Shirts and led a military expedition against the kingdom of two Sicilies. In 1860, Garibaldi and his troops landed in Sicily and within three months Sicily was captured. From Sicily, he marched to Naples and occupied it. A provisional government was set up with the help of the natives.

Garibaldi then announced his intention to liberate Rome from the French supported Papal authority. Here, Cavour intervened and persuaded Garibaldi and his men to hand over the kingdom of two Sicilies to Sardinia. Accordingly, Garibaldi, in order to avoid a civil war, handed over his possessions to Sardinia and retired from active politics. Thus, as a devout republican and a strong nationalist, Garibaldi became an important figure in the second stage in the unification of Germany.

The third stage in the unification was the liberation of Venetia and Rome from the clutches of Austria and French supported papal authority respectively. Thus, when Victor Emmanuel II was proclaimed as the king of Italy, with the support of his parliament, he was looking for an opportunity to oust Austria from Venetia. The time had come in 1866, when Austria declared war on Prussia, where Victor Emmanuel II extended his support to Prussia. In the Austro – Prussian war of 1866, Prussia defeated Austria and as a result, Venetia was freed and handed over to the king Victor.

Thus, after 1866, only Rome remained outside the so called united Italy. But in 1870-71, the opportunity had come with the outbreak of the Franco – Prussian war. The war against Prussia compelled the French ruler Napoleon III to withdraw his troops stationed in Rome to help the Pope. Exploiting the opportunity, under the order of King Victor Emmanuel III, the Italian soldiers marched to Rome and annexed to their territory, except the city of Vatican. Thus by 1870-71 the unification of Italy was complete and a nation state of Italy came in to being. Italy from there onwards played a vital role in the days to come in the history of Europe.

UNIFICATION OF GERMANY

Like Italy, Germany was a conglomeration of petty states amounting to 300 loosely linked by the Holy Roman Empire. Cultural differentiation, economic disunity with various currencies and weights and measures, poor communication systems, parochial thinking and feudal social structure further intensified German disunity. It was in this context that the French Revolution inspired the Germans with the spirit of nationalism. It was furthered by the destruction of the Holy Roman Empire by the Napoleonic wars. Napoleon replaced the loose knit of German states with the Confederation of the Rhine welding independent German States. This benefited the Germans, who felt for themselves the spirit of unity.

The fall of Napoleon and the consequent Congress of Vienna of 1815 led to the disruption of German unity. The master brain behind the Congress of Vienna, Metternich replaced the Confederation of Rhine with German Confederation of 38 states under the presidency of Austria. The objective behind this approach was to remain Germans disunited.

It was here, the philosophers of Germany played their own part in arousing national consciousness among the people. Herder, Hegel, Ernst Arndt and Fichte deserve special mention. They oriented the people with their language, which produced a flurry of ballads, songs and other literary compositions to arouse the German people.

Johann Gottfried Herder was German thinker, poet, theologian, literary critic and philosopher, who laid the foundations of nationalism in Germany with his concept of organic or romantic nationalism. He introduced the theory of *Volksgeist* and argued that all societies and cultures had their unique spirit that makes them different from other people. The German term *Volks* means the people and *Geist* means the Spirit. His concept of nationalism was based on the principles of self determination and cultural identity. Language was the key to national unity.

He was an ardent critic of absolutism. He had faith in democracy, which he believed would foster nationalism. Herder's seminal contributions to the idea of nationalism earned him the title 'the intellectual father of the national movement' in Germany.

Hegel also stood for the unification of Germany. His idea of History culminated itself in the unification of Germany.

These steps were furthered by the services of intellectuals, university teachers, students and writers. They formed organisations and used popular festivals to fight against the rulers of German states and militarism of the rulers.

Thus, organisations like 'Young German'. 'Blacks' etc, emerged between 1835 and 1848 and these organisations provided training to the youth for achieving unity and freedom.

The unification of Germany was effected primarily by the work of Prussians. Prussia was one of largest states in Germany in terms of space and economy. Prussia took the lead in the unification, especially in the economic arena, where she made the first effort. It led to the birth, in 1834, of a customs union, called the Zollverein, which abolished all tariff barriers among the German states and reduced the number of currencies. Thus, the Zollverein could unite almost all states economically that eventually led to political unification. Along with this, the building of railways and the emergence of a middle class also strengthened the spirit of nationalism and unity.

The middle class promoted the idea of nationalism with its emphasis on liberalism and nationalism. The growth of trade and industrialisation further acted as catalyst for its growth and the middle class supported all the efforts for unification.

The 1830 and 1848 revolutions in Europe also stimulated the spirit of national unity among the Germans. As a result of the success of 1830 revolution in France, many revolts broke out in many states of German confederation. In Prussia, the king Frederick William IV was forced to accept the demands of the liberals in convening an assembly to chalk out the modalities for the unification.

This assembly convened in March 1849, finally formed a constitution for a unified German state excluding Austria. This constitution emphasised constitutional monarchy with a parliament elected by adult male members. Although the assembly offered the crown to Frederick, he summarily rejected it as he was not interested to get power from the people.

After the failure of a revolution in 1848, there were attempts to restore monarchy in small principalities. But the situation changed in 1861, when William I, the brother of Frederick William IV came to power. Both of them belonged to the ruling Hohenzollern dynasty. An autocrat with conservative outlook, William I believed in war and militarism and believed in the use of military might to unite the people of Germany.

With this end in view, he reorganised the army of Prussia. Then he appointed Otto von Bismarck as the prime minister to defend his power against the involvement of the parliament. As a shrewd politician and a cunning administrator, Bismarck overcame all the problems from 1862 to 1871 that impeded the unification of Germany

Bismarck belonged to a land owning aristocracy, known as the Junkers, and as such he had no faith in parliamentary democracy. He was conservative in the sense that he openly defended monarchy and believed in the power of Prussian monarchy in accomplishing the unification. As a cunning diplomat, Bismarck announced his policy for the unification. To him, neither speeches nor majority resolutions bring unification: instead, the only policy for unification should be the policy of 'Blood and Iron'. It was nothing but the policy of war and for that he increased the size of the army and imposed

taxes without the consent of the parliament. By defying the parliament, Bismarck succeeded in forming a well trained and well equipped army for implementing his policy of Blood and Iron.

It was through three wars- war with Denmark, war with Austria and war with France – Bismarck effected the processes of German unification.

The war with Denmark broke out due to the diplomatic skill of Bismarck. He realised that Austria was the chief enemy of Prussia in the way to unification. Thus, he wanted to isolate Austria from its monopoly over the German confederation. For that he made friendship with Russia and succeeded in cementing the support of Russia.

Having succeeded in getting Russia's support, Bismarck was not in favour of using Russia against Denmark. Instead, after making an agreement with Austria, he consciously created a quarrel with Denmark over the possession of Schleswig and Holstein, two principalities, majority of people of these was Germans. When these two principalities were annexed by Denmark, Bismarck declared war against Denmark in December 1864. The combined forces of Prussia and Austria defeated Denmark which resulted in the handing over of one the two principalities to Prussia. Austria also got her share in the form Holstein.

The question over the possessions naturally led to enmity between the two allies and accordingly, Bismarck wanted to drag Austria in to war. Having succeeded in getting the support of Russia, he secured the neutrality of France in the case of war with Austria. He also negotiated an alliance with Sardinian kingdom in Italy that promised military assistance in return for Venetia, occupied by Austria.

Bismarck was ready for the war and on the question of violating the terms of the already made treaty, he sent troops to Holstein. The war continued for seven weeks and known as the 'Seven Weeks' War' that ended in the victory of Prussia at Sadowa. The war came to an end with the Treaty of Prague signed in 1866 and in the treaty; he was generous towards Austria not to impose any war indemnity on her. Hence Prussia got Holstein and Venetia had been given to Sardinia. As part of the treaty, Austria agreed to withdraw from German confederation along with securing Austria's support in future endeavours of Prussia.

The war with Austria fetched Holstein to Prussia and the dominance of Prussia in German speaking areas was affirmed. Thus, Bismarck replaced German Confederation with North German Confederation under the leadership of Prussia. By 1866, only the Southern states remained out of the unified Germany.

For unified Germany, Bismarck began his policy of diplomacy and war. In order to arouse patriotic feelings of the people of Southern states, he was looking for an opportunity to declare war on France. For this, his country's position was secured by

isolating France, along with getting the neutrality of Russia. Having realised this, he interfered in the Spanish Succession and provoked France a war.

In the absence of a heir to Spanish throne, the statesmen of Spain offered the crown to one of the relatives of William I, Prince Leopold. This alarmed Napoleon III of France, who demanded from William I an assurance that the Prussian king would not support the candidature of Prince Leopold to the throne of Spain. For this Napoleon III deputed his close aid to meet the Prussian king at Ems. But the Prussian king refused the demand of Napoleon III and these details were telegraphed to Bismarck. Bismarck manipulated the content of the telegram so as to get the impression that the close aid of Napoleon III was insulted by the Prussian ruler and this was made public. The newspapers of both countries published this hot news and sensationalised it. It is known as the 'Ems Despatch' that provoked France to declare war against Prussia

Accordingly, France declared war on Prussia on 19th July 1870. All the Southern German states joined the war against the French and defeat of the French was assured. Napoleon III was taken as a prisoner and the war came to an end with the Treaty of Frankfurt on 10th May 1871. The Treaty compelled France to give away Alsace and a major part of Lorraine along with a huge war indemnity to Prussia. This encouraged the Southern German states to join the union and thus the unification of Germany was completed. William I of Prussia was enthroned as the emperor of United Germany in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles in France.

Thus, the unification of Germany was the outcome of skilful diplomacy of Bismarck along with the whole hearted support of the people. The sentiments of the people with regard to German language and culture were rightly exploited by Bismarck in accomplishing the unification of Germany.

MODULE IV

TWENTIETH CENTURY WORLD

The 20th century was a period, which witnessed the end of Europeanization and the rise of US and USSR to international dominance, imperialist rivalries and conflicts that resulted in two global Wars and the liberation of the European colonies in all parts of the world. It also witnessed the formation of two international organisations- the League of Nations and the UN-, the Great Economic Depression, rise of Fascism, the beginning of Cold Wars and the a surge in Science, IT and Medical Sciences along with the bringing of gender and gender equity to the forefront.

I WORLD WAR (1914 – 1918)

Almost all parts of the world directly or indirectly involved in a war, where almost all countries concerned utilised all economic resources for the War and even civilians were affected by the war is called as the Great War or the First World War. Thus, this War was different from the earlier wars in its extent, nature, course and effects.

CAUSES FOR THE WAR

Many factors were responsible for the outbreak of the War. The most important factor was Imperialist Rivalries and Conflicts among colonial nations. By the beginning of the 20th century, all nations of Europe had acquired large number of colonies in Asia and Africa. But those European nations, which came to the scene in the last hour could not possess enough colonies, the best specimen were Italy and Germany. Hence the ambition of these nations naturally conflicted with the interests of other European powers that resulted in bitter competitions and rivalries among nations.

Aggressive nationalism was another factor that was instrumental for the War. Nationalism, by the beginning of the 20th century, came to be redefined and it had shrunken into self worship, which had its manifestations in the form of hatred towards other nations. This parochial form of nationalism gave the governments of each nation the licence to exercise their power and get it ratified by the people. The new trends found their expressions in various national movements viz, the Greater Serbia Scheme, the Pan Slav movement, the Pan German movement and the Revenge movement.

The thrust on military and it was the panacea for all problems also played its role in the outbreak of the First World War. By the beginning if the 20th century, due to constant insecurity, almost all nations of Europe tried their maximum to tighten security by spending more on weapons and building huge army personnel.

This in turn manifested itself in the ideology of war and in the significance of military officers, who blatantly advocated war the only solution for all problems and thus glory to the nation.

Another factor that was instrumental to the War was the role of the press. As the makers of public opinion, the press of almost all European nations inflamed the national feelings and misinterpreted the facts. Thus an atmosphere was consciously created in favour of war, which also suited their economic interests. This embittered the relation between nations that became so inimical at the beginning of the second decade of the 20th century.

The ultimate factor, the formal setting up of military alliance and secret alliance also led to the War. This naturally divided the European nations into two hostile camps – The Triple Alliance and the triple Entente. The Former was a formal alliance of Germany, Italy and Austria- Hungary, formed in 1882 and tried to protect its own interests. The latter was an understanding of three nations – Britain, France and Russia, formed in 1907. These alliances consciously converted local issues into conflicts and local conflicts into global war.

Thus the stage was set for the demonstration of military might, technological possessions and final show down.

The War was the immediate outcome of a number of incidents. The main events were: the Moroccan Crisis, the Bosnian Crisis and the Balkan Crisis.

The Morocco was and continues to be a state in the north western part of Africa. It was coveted both by France and Britain, and they came to a secret agreement by which France was to get a major part of Morocco and was to get a free hand in Egypt. This secret agreement was against the interests of Germany and when the agreement was leaked out, Germany openly supported the sultan to maintain the independence of his state. Germany, further wanted to make this a international issue for which she demanded an international conference. Consequently, a conference was held at Algeciras in Spain in 1906, which recognised the interests of France in Morocco. For the time being, the crisis was averted, but it got a momentum in 1911, when Germany sent a gunboat namely Panther, to the Moroccan port at Agadir. Britain countered the aggression and sent a cruiser to observe the Panther and this made the crisis a bitter one. But the issue had temporarily resolved when France occupied most of Morocco and Germany was permitted to occupy most part of Congo under France.

In the year 1908, there began the Bosnian Crisis, when Austria annexed the Turkish provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Serbia had interest in these territories, for; majority of the people was Serbs. When Serbia sought the help of Russia, Austria was amply assisted by Germany and this combine that had a upper hand. This situation

made Serbia a constant enemy of Austria that resulted in the immediate outbreak of the War.

The Balkan Crisis was yet another incident that ignited the War. The Balkan League attacked Turkey in 1912 and captured Turkey's most possessions in Europe. This battle is known as the First Balkan War. The question over the spoils of war led to internal squabbles within the League that resulted in the Second Balkan War in 1913. This situation worsened the relationship among nations of Europe, which was on the verge of a war.

The immediate crisis for the War was the Sarajevo crisis. Sarajevo was the capital of Bosnia and in that city the heir to the Austrian throne, Archduke Francis Ferdinand along with his wife Countess Sophie Chotek was shot dead by a Serb student terrorist namely Gavrilo Princip on 28th June 1914. Austria, realising the involvement of Serbian government sent an ultimatum on 23rd July asking for eleven demands. Meanwhile Germany extended unconditional support to Austria. On 25th July, Serbia accepted certain demands of Austria but rejected some of them. This infuriated Austria, which declared war on Serbia on 28th July 1914. Russia, hoping to support Serbia mobilised her army, but was aptly checked by Germany by ordering to demobilise the army. But Russia refused that order, which resulted in the declaration of war by Germany on Russia on 1st August 1914. Soon, on August 3rd Germany declared war on France and deputed troops to France through Belgium, by violating the neutrality of Belgium on the following day. This naturally compelled Britain to involve in the War and she declared war on Germany on the same day.

Meanwhile, many nations of the world entered the war. Asian power Japan and Portugal joined hands with Entente, while, one of the members of the Triple Alliance, Italy remained neutral and joined the war in 1915 not against the Entente but against Germany and Austria. Thus the alliance equation began to change and soon Rumania and Greece supported the Entente powers, which came to be known as Allied Powers. The Allied Powers got further momentum when USA associated herself with it.

The Triple Alliance also underwent changes, when Turkey and Bulgaria joined hands with it. This new alliance came to be known as the Central Powers. Thus, started as a war of local significance between Serbia and Austria, it involved all countries of Europe and in course of time almost countries of the world became a part of it. The battles were fought at different parts of the world, but special mention has to be made in the battles in Europe. Mention should be made to the battle of Marne, which saved the fall of Paris to Germany.

Simultaneous with this, in Eastern Europe, the combined forces of Austria and Germany made offences against Russia, which had been at the receiving end in all the

battles. Soon after the Russian Revolution, Russia withdrew from the war and signed the Treaty of Brest –Litovsk with Germany.

Germany also made offences against Great Britain and in the battle of Jutland, despite the initial losses; Britain could win over Germany, who followed submarine warfare to counter British naval superiority. This provoked the US, and declared war on Germany on 16th April 1917. The entry of the US benefited the Allied Powers and was on the brink of victory in the war.

Mustering all her resources, Germany made a desperate attempt to defeat the Allied Powers, which countered the attack with all of their military might. Thus Germany was forced to surrender along with Austria that formally surrendered on 3rd November 1918. Germany, owing to internal squabbles surrendered on 11th November 1918, formally putting an end to the war.

RESULTS

The War had an all pervading impact on all sectors. The main impact of the First World War was the terrible loss of human lives; one million people were killed and twenty million were either wounded or directly affected. This devastation had no precedence in history and it indirectly affected the lives of the common people as well.

It badly affected the economies of the world, since all those involved in the war spent almost all of their resources for the war. This havoc in the economies, led to price hikes and severe shortage of food and the huge rise in unemployment. This situation naturally produced fall in production and low life index of the people.

The war made its impact on the political front too. The three ruling dynasties - the Romanovs of Russia, the Hohenzollern dynasty of Germany and the Habsburgs of Austria – had become memory and part of history. Besides, the rule of Ottomans in Turkey also came to an end. Austria and Hungary became two separate nations after the war.

The war marked the beginning of the end of European dominance in the world. Till the War Europe had an upper hand over the world due to its technological and military might. Instead the US, Japan and USSR started dominating the affairs of the world. Thus America became the centre of gravity in the world.

This situation boosted the spirit of nationalism of the colonies and enabled to expedite peoples' nationalist expectations. Thus the War strengthened the freedom movements of Asia and Africa. In Europe, it helped the emergence of new states like Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Poland and Hungary.

The victorious powers of the imposed a huge war indemnity on Germany, which after the war witnessed the emergence of Fascist regime and dictatorships . This

development resulted in the outbreak of the Second World War. Thus, more than an end to all wars, and to make the world safe for democracy, the war resulted in conflicts and rivalries that became the foundation for the next global war.

The war, with its terrible devastation caused crises in everyone, particularly among the youth. These crises are often designated as, what Gertrude Stein denoted as 'lost generation'

The War led to the formation of an international organisation, the League of Nations and attempted to check another war.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

League of Nations was the outcome of the First World War. It was the realisation of the demand for an international organisation to safeguard the world and to preserve world peace. Woodrow Wilson the president of the US has the unique distinction of creating an international agency and it born out of his 14 Point programme. His idea was accepted by the Paris Peace Conference, which officially concluded the First World War. An international committee under the chairmanship of Woodrow Wilson was constituted to make a draft of the constitution of the League of Nations. This draft was approved and thus born the League on 10th January 1920. At the beginning there were only 42 members, later it rose to 62. The founding nation the US did not join the League; while Germany and the USSR were excluded.

To accomplish its aims, the League had three principal organs. They were the Assembly, the Council and the Secretariat. The Assembly, which consisted of the representatives of member nations, was the law making body.

The Council was the executive. Its function was to deal with specific disputes as when these arose. The members of this council were elected by the Assembly for a period of three years. The members consist of four permanent members from among the permanent countries, Britain, France, Italy and Japan and four non permanent members later increased to nine.

The Secretariat was the administrative body and was in charge of all agenda and reports and day to day functions.

Besides these, the League had International Court of Justice and International Labour Organisation.

Though, worked smoothly for keeping peace and settle issues, the League could not make much impression in its history. In the 1930s it could solve only minor issues and failed to prevent another world war.

There were many factors that contributed for the failure of the League of Nations.

The primary reason was that the founder nation the US did not become a member. This deprived of the league a powerful member, which would have been made much psychological, political, diplomatic and financial benefit.

Secondly, it was not actually a global body, for, only selected members by the victorious were given membership. Thus Germany was not given membership and some powers made early exit.

In the next place, it was dominated by European powers like Britain and France. These nations were led by their own interests and benefit, while the interests and future of the League were not taken in to account seriously. Thus the very existence and relevance of the League was questioned.

The League had certain limitations, for; it did not have an army of its own. Hence the work and functions were only in paper; it could only bark but not bite.

The basic dictum of unanimity among nations was not practicable with regard to decision making process. Thus the working was either paralysed or blocked owing to this handicap.

The lack of economic backing from almost all member nations in the early 1930s due the economic depression of 1929 contributed to the decline of the League. This situation was aptly exploited by the rising Fascist regimes in Germany and Italy, who blatantly and publicly violated the constitution of the League.

The final factor contributed to its failure was that it was tool in the hands of victorious powers of the I World War. Thus, when the Paris Peace Conference imposed a huge war indemnity on Germany, it could do nothing and was a mute spectator. It could not win the support of the defeated nations of the war.

RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

It is the first successful communist revolution that resulted in the establishment of a Socialist State in the world. Perhaps, the first planned and orchestrated revolution, it was organised and put into practice by the Communist Party that generously got the whole hearted support of the masses, especially the peasantry and working class. It made its impact felt in almost all parts of the world, particularly the freedom movements of the colonies in the 20th century.

CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION

Many factors were responsible for the revolution. Among them the following deserve special mention.

The autocracy of the Romanovs was the primary cause behind the revolution. The rulers of Russia were called Tsars, Czars and at the beginning of the 20th century, Russia was ruled by Nicholas II, a synonym of autocracy and despotism. He strongly believed in the

theory of Divine Right of Kingship and he ruled not for the people. He did not even convene the feudal parliament Duma. To watch and to make a vigil on the people, he maintained a secret police called 'Cossacks'. Moreover, he was under the control of Rasputin, the unscrupulous monk and the synonym of nepotism and authority. This led to rampant corruption in administration and inefficiency in bureaucracy. Thus, the political economy of Russia was not for the people, but for the elite.

Social factors also contributed the revolution. The society was characterised by feudal practices at their worst and as such there was no development. 80% of the population was peasants and they lived in poor and extreme backward atmosphere. These lots had no land of their own and only a small minority had small land holdings, while overwhelming majority of land was under clergy, nobles, big landlords and members of the ruling family. Above all, there were rapid growth of population, the problem of huge burden of taxation, and forced labour. In these circumstances, hunger of land, or staunch demand for agricultural land from the part of peasants became the igniting factor for the revolution.

In terms of socio-economic tally, there was discontent especially among the urban working class or the industrial workers. The industrialisation process which was the outcome of foreign and indigenous capitalists, created a large group of working class, who had to toil more than 15 hours a day at lower wages. This class had no political rights, and had no freedom to organise unions to clamour for their rights. The net outcome was a large group of discontented workers, who were looking for an opportunity to change the existing situation. This dissatisfaction had already made ripples in the form of labour strikes; hence the role of this group in the outbreak of the revolution was instrumental.

The role of the intelligentsia in the revolution cannot go unnoticed. The well famous thinkers of Russia like Leo Tolstoy, Turgenev, Dostoyevsky, Maxim Gorky and of course Vladimir Lenin had portrayed the utter exploitation and the decadence of the Russian society. They made the people realise the political disorder and corruption of the then times.

This resulted in the emergence of a number of radical schools of thought; the prominent among them were Nihilism, Populism, anarchism and Marxism. Nihilism was and continues to be a school of philosophy that opposes tradition and institutions and it believes in nothing.

Populism stands for social revolution through the peasants. The term Populism means going to the people.

Anarchism was yet another stream of thought and stands for the abolition of all governments and the use of violence at a larger scale for getting rid of governments.

Marxism is a practical philosophy that stands for a classless and stateless society, where everyone enjoys life. This philosophy is the sum total of the ideas and social mechanism as envisaged by Karl Marx, the father of communism or Scientific Socialism. It was the most powerful philosophy behind the Russian Revolution and

Inspired by this ideology, revolutionary activities began to be organised on these lines.

The immediate factor for the revolution was the failure of Russia in the I World War. She was compelled to join the war without any preparations – shortage of arms, poor transport system and acute shortage of food. In short, Russian soldiers asked for defeat from Germany and almost all people believed that the ruler was personally responsible for the failure.

It was in this historical background that political parties, especially Socialist groups began to be formed at the fag end of the 19th century. In 1898, the Russian Social Democratic Labour Party was formed by integrating different socialist groups. After five years, in 1903, differences of opinion with regard to organisation, structure and policies led to a split in the party. Thus the RSDLP party was split into two; The Mensheviks and the Bolsheviks. The former was headed by Kerensky and Plekhanov and stood for parliamentary system through peaceful and constitutional means. The latter was led by Lenin and stood for revolution, particularly proletarian revolution. This party played a vital role in the revolution and its role was manifested itself with the publication of a newspaper titled Pravda, means Truth.

The first phase of revolution began in 1905, when Russia was defeated in the Russo Japanese War of 1905. This irked resentment among the people; and both from the urban and rural sector- the industrial workers and the peasants made protests. The specimen of these protests occurred on 9th January 1905, the Sunday when a large posse of workers led by Father Gapon organised a peaceful procession to Moscow to submit a mass petition to Nicholas II. Rather than accepting the petition, he ordered his troops to act and in that firing hundreds of innocent people were killed. This incident is known as ‘Bloody Sunday’. Following this, a series of violent protests against the tsar occurred and this compelled Nicholas II to grant certain rights to the people. As rightly pointed out by Lenin, it was a Dress Rehearsal of the Russian revolution of 1917.

The partial success of these protests prompted the workers at the outset to form Soviets, the council of workers’ representatives. These were formed for conducting strikes. Later the Soviets of peasants and soldiers were also formed. It was these soviets that were instrumental in the Russian revolution to come in 1917.

The second phase and the first phase of the Russian revolution of 1917 began on 8th March 1917 with bread riots in Petrograd. Bread riots began with the demonstration by the working class women trying to purchase bread. Workers from the

nearby armament factory soon joined them demanding withdrawal from the I World War. Meanwhile soldiers also extended support and mob violence escalated. Prisoners were released from prisons and law and order came under the people. Soon, the control of Petrograd and Moscow was taken away by the Revolutionaries. This naturally resulted in the abdication of the Tsar, Nicholas II and hence it marked the end of the rule of the Romanov dynasty. The parliament Duma declared Russia a republic and provisional government under George Lvov as prime minister was formed. In July, Alexander Kerensky became the prime minister.

These events came to be called the February revolution, for, according to the Old Russian calendar it occurred on 27th February 1917. As stated earlier. It began with bread riots and hence it was not pre planned and organised one. It was really the spontaneous outcome of the discounted lot and unrest of the people But it made the people realise their own power to make anything possible.

The provisional government miserably failed to accomplish the demands of the people- land to the tiller, control of industries by workers and peaceful atmosphere. Instead of withdrawing from the I World War, the provisional government decided to continue the war, hence the government lost the support of the people.

These circumstances led the Bolsheviks to organise uprisings, which began in October. The Soviets of Petrograd decided on 20th October to seize power and consequently seized power on the 6th November 1917 and they were led by none other than Lenin and Trotsky. They wrest control of the seat of the provisional government at Winter Palace. Though Kerensky could escape unhurt, the government collapsed soon.

The role of Lenin in this endeavour should not go unnoticed. From exile in Switzerland, Lenin returned to Russia in April and assumed the leadership of the revolution. His slogan of “land, Bread and Peace” attracted the people and his selfless service made him the hero of the people. Through the Soviets of the Workers and peasants, he gained control of the revolution and he realised the potential of the soviets. This was proved by his sloganeering of ‘all power to the soviets’.

The new government, at the outset decided to withdraw from the War. Thus it signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Germany in March 1918. As a result, Russia had to cede the territories that Germany demanded.

Meanwhile, Russia plunged into civil war between the supporters of the Tsar and the Bolsheviks. The former did get support all the anti communists and foreign countries like England, France, Japan and the US. In the war the Red army defeated the White army of the anti communists by 1921. This naturally led to the establishment of the government of the communists, which united all Russian territories into a federation known as the Union of Soviet Socialist Republic that became part of history in 1991.

This revolution according to the old calendar occurred in October, hence it is known in history as the October Revolution.

Russian Revolution had its far reaching consequences not only in Russia but the globe as well. In Russia it destroyed the autocracy of the Romanovs and the power of the church and set up the first socialist state and society.

It also destroyed the vestiges of feudalism and the anti people industrialisation. Thus it tried to eliminate inequality and tried for a classless society.

In the political field, the integration of various ethnic and geographical groups under a single federation was another outcome of the revolution.

At the global level, it became an inspiration to all the revolutionaries who were and continues to strive for social and economic equality. It paved the way strengthening anti imperialist struggles all over the world.

It also instrumental in strengthening the national liberation struggles in Asia, Africa and Latin America.

Russian Revolution also became a source foe anti colonial struggles and accelerated the process of decolonisation all over the world.

Finally, the revolution extended the impetus for the growth of communist movement at the international level. It resulted in setting up Comintern to strengthen revolutions all over.

The success of the revolution made USSR one of the super powers and resulted in the division of world into two conflicting fronts. This division led to emergence of Cold Wars in history, which redefined international relations and programmes.

POST I WORLD WAR DEVELOPMENTS

THE GREAT DEPRESSION OF 1929

The post I World War period witnessed one of the worst economic depressions of the times, sinking almost all nations economy in to disarray and functioning f the state into an irksome venture. It started in the US leading to total collapse of stock market in Wall Street in New York City. As usual, the prices of the shares had come down, creating tension and panic among the people, who rushed for selling their shares. The high prices by which the shares were bought had to be sold for very low prices led to pauperisation and it is known as the 'Wall Street Crash'.

The consequent result of this crash was the collapse of banks, where there were rushes of the people to withdraw the savings. Banks began to be closed down and the

purchasing of the people also faced the same fate. It naturally led to fall in the demand for goods, which in turn led to closure of factories and rampant unemployment became the order of the day. Agricultural production fell and farmers lost not only their livelihood but life as well. The closure of business establishments increased rapidly and suicide of the people was out of news.

The crisis in the US economy spread to other countries and it became known as the 'World Economic Crisis'. It was outcome of over production, fall in exports, unequal distribution of income, unemployment and crash in stock market due to speculative business. Over production, both in the industrial sector and agrarian sector led to ruin of industries and severe unemployment in the former and slashing of prices of commodities and grains in the latter. Both these created unequal distribution of income and the gap between the rich and poor widened at its worst.

The political implications of the Depression cannot go unnoticed. It led to the installation of aggressive and authoritarian right wing politics in some of the European countries. It also brought to the fore the innate weakness of the capitalist system. As the champion of the system, in the US, it led to crowning of Democratic Party. The only nation that was not affected by the Depression was the USSR, with her strength of socialism. The strength of socialist economy eventually strengthened the socialist movements across the globe.

RISE OF FASCISM

The post First World War period witnessed the emergence of Fascist movements in the world. The first successful Fascist revolution took place in Italy. The term Fascism is derived from the Italian word 'Fasces' meaning 'a bundle of rods'. The term was first used to denote the violent anti democratic and anti people movement in Italy under Benito Mussolini. Today, Fascism has been used to represent the image of someone intolerant, fanatical and fundamentalist, who does not entertain the ideology and practice of others. Originally, it was of interwar period origin and this period is often designated as the 'epoch of Fascism'.

FASCISM IN ITALY

It was the post I War repercussions that led to emergence of Fascism in Italy. The aftermath of the war on Italian economy was disastrous and alarming. Large scale unemployment, increasing national debt, the sharp fall in the value of Italian currency and escalating industrial violence along with agrarian unrest had been the order of the day after the War. The people had nothing to live on and disillusionment and frustration had tightened the lives of the people.

The wealthy industrialists and the capitalists were in utter disarray.

In the midst of this chaotic atmosphere, they feared revolution either by the Communists or Socialists. The Italians did not get what they expected after the War. They felt themselves betrayed by the victors, hence vengeance had been brewing among all sections of the society not only the existing government, but against those who deprived of their share in the war as well.

It was in this alarming situation that Fascism tasted victory with political intrigues and with the breakdown of parliamentary government. Although, there were innumerable political parties, instability in polity became the order of the day. Thus, parliamentary system of government had become a question mark and it was unpopular. This situation was fully exploited by Mussolini and established his own government in Italy.

Benito Mussolini was basically a staunch socialist and in 1912, he became the editor of Avanti, a socialist newspaper. The meaning of Avanti is 'forward'. As a socialist, he opposed Italy's entry into the I World war, but later he justified the entry. Eventually he was expelled from the Socialist Party. This was a blessing in disguise for Mussolini, who founded his own newspaper called, Il Popolo, meaning the people of Italy.

After serving as soldier in the War, Mussolini actively involved himself in political agitations, in the strikes of 1920 -21. Meanwhile, he founded the Fascio di Combattimento, ie, Fighting groups in March 1919 at Milan. He also organised his own group, the Black Shirts, who wanted to seize power primarily by violence. He shed his socialist face and his followers hunted down the socialists and communists of Italy along with sabotaging the strikes of industrial workers.

In the 1919 elections, the performance of the Fascists was dismal. This really made him anti parliamentarian. Soon, in 1921, he formed the National Fascist Party that contested in the elections held in the same year, and the party could win 35 seats. Although short of majority in the parliament, Mussolini always talked of seizing power. Thus on 24th October 1922, the Party organised a march to Rome to frighten the government. But the king Immanuel III refused to crush the march and on 29th October, he invited Mussolini to form the government. Thus, without any violence, Mussolini came to power as the prime minister of Italy.

He made his office the hub of authoritarianism and assumed dictatorial powers. Hence he was hailed as 'Il Duce', meaning the Leader. Being the centre of all power, he organised the militia on fascist lines. All his critiques were either killed or punished, and there were no political opponents, including the communists and socialists to him. In 1926, he made all non fascist parties illegal. Freedom of meeting and speech were

under danger. The fascists advocated intense nationalism and glorified war, which became the panacea for all problems.

NAZISM IN GERMANY

Nazism is the German version of Fascism. It was headed by Adolf Hitler, the synonym of fascism and dictatorship. *Mein Kampf*, the autobiography of Hitler, published in 1925, contains his theory and method of Nazism and is considered as the bible of the movement. Several factors facilitated the success of Nazism in Germany.

The foremost reason was the dismal failure of Germany in the First World War. The Germans considered the defeat as a national humiliation. Further, the Treaty of Versailles, which formally concluded the War, had imposed on Germany a huge war indemnity that made her economically very weak. Besides, the Treaty also isolated her politically, curtailed her military prowess and humiliated Germany nationally. All these aroused anger and revenge among the Germans, who had been in search for an able leader. The Nazis utilised this opportunity to demonstrate the unjust provisions of the Treaty and made the people aware of the repercussions on her economy.

The economic distress also played its role in bringing the Nazis to power. Although the government minted money, more than controlling unemployment, it created inflation. Inflation became out of control and monetary system broke down. This situation was cleverly used by the Nazis to seize power.

The fear in the spread of Communism also enabled the Nazis to obtain power. Although, the Revolutionary Marxists, owing allegiance to Communism, known as Spartacists began revolution under Rosa Luxemburg in 1919, it was suppressed. The growth of Communist Party of Germany also alarmed the capitalists and big land owners as well, who unconditionally supported the Nazis in their attempt to seize power.

It is often said that, it was the Great Depression of 1929 that was instrumental in bringing Nazis to political spectrum. The depression had created unprecedented havoc on the German economy. Depending largely on the US, the depression had its rather negative impact on Germany. All people- the workers, the agriculturists, the businessmen, the farmers, the industrialists, the landlords and the middle class- were hit by the depression and this frustration of the Germans was exploited by the Nazis.

Finally, the inherent weakness and the inability in solving the problems of the ruling government, the Weimar Republic also contributed for the success of the Nazis. The Republic was identified for all the Germans in the War and the post War developments including the unjust provisions of the Treaty of Versailles. Moreover, the Republic could not effect stable government in Germany. In a span of 13 years, the government

produced and experimented with 20 cabinets that explicitly demonstrated its instability to bring good governance. Therefore, both the Right Wing and the Left Extremists had been conspiring against the government. Naturally, this political stalemate helped the Nazis to grab power.

The Nazis were led by Adolf Hitler, an Austrian by birth. He joined the German militia in the First World War and after the war he joined the German Workers' Party in 1919. In 1920, he made the Party into a mass Party and renamed it as National Socialist German Workers' Party. It is better known as the Nazi Party with Swastika as its symbol. This party had elaborate structure, had its own newspaper and a separate propaganda division and machinery.

The Nazi party had two paramilitary organisations: The Storm Troopers known as SA and the Elite Guard known as SS. The former was the private army of the Party with brown shirts as its uniform, while, as the name suggests, the latter was an elite force designed originally as the personal bodyguard of Hitler.

The Nazis publicly denounced the Treaty of Versailles and tried to integrate all Germans under one race and state to form a great Germany. He considered the Jews as a separate group of people and identified them responsible for the failure of Germany in the First World War. By arousing this sentiment, he glorified militant nationalism and war. The Nazis considered Communism as the greatest enemy and stood for its extinction.

The war torn social fabric of Germany welcomed the activities of Hitler. Almost all people, from the Protestants to Catholics, from old to young, from urban to rural and from working class to middle class- rallied around Hitler, who was considered as a messiah.

In 1923, Hitler made an unsuccessful attempt to seize power and was imprisoned for almost one year. It was from here, he wrote his autobiography, the *Mein Kampf*. This made Hitler to resort to elections to gain power. In the elections held in 1928, the Nazis could win only a few seats. But, in the 1932 elections, it could emerge as the single largest party and with the support of the Right wing parties; Hitler was nominated as the Chancellor. This persuaded the president Hindenburg to invite Hitler to become the Chancellor. Thus, rather by political intrigues, than by mustering majority in the elections or popular uprising, Hitler could become the Chancellor.

The Chancellorship of Hitler witnessed centralised totalitarian regime in Germany. In 1934, when the president Hindenburg died, he declared himself not only as the president, but as the Chancellor as well. He took the title *Fuehrer*, meaning leader and proclaimed the new rule, known as the Third Reich or Empire. By using violence, Hitler became a dictator and the symbol of authoritarianism. Being the head, he

suppressed all civil liberties and banned all political parties. Freedom of speech and expression had become a distant dream and all education system came under his control.

By glorifying war, he converted Germany into a military camp and all Jews were severely prosecuted. He consolidated his position by emphasising rearmament and publicly mustering arms and ammunitions. He made Germany militarily powerful and prepared Germany for her expansion, which dragged her to the Second World War.

THE SECOND WORLD WAR 1939 – 1945

The post I World War developments culminated in tensions and conflicts that ultimately led to another Global war, denoted as II World War. This War, more ghastly than the First started in Europe soon assumed a global character. It has been denoted in many names – Hitler’s war, a War against Fascism and the last European War, the last to quote John Lukacs.

There were several factors that contributed for the II World War.

It was primarily the outcome of the Paris Peace conference and the resultant Treaty of Versailles. The Treaty imposed on Germany was unjustifiable and irrational, thus it questioned the pride of the Germans, who in turn burnt with vengeance against the Victors. Germany was not given her colonies and territories. Therefore, the Germans defied the provisions of the Treaty and they had been waiting for an opportunity to make revenge on the Victors.

The imperial rivalries among the colonial powers were another factor that ignited the II World War. Majority of the global territories and natural resource were under the control of Great Britain, France, the US and Russia. This unequal distribution eventually created resentment among the budding nations like Germany, Italy and Japan. These powers had only meagre colonies and natural resources, which really curtailed their economic development. Thus, almost all nations of this group realized imperialism as the only panacea for all their issues. Thus every budding imperialist nation had an eye on the territories of Africa and Asia. The best specimens are Japan, Germany and Italy.

Another factor was the Great Depression of the late 1920s. As stated earlier, the outcome of the depression created strong political and economic consequences, which resulted in the intensification of economic nationalism. This in turn led to high tariffs and currency regulations in an attempt to stabilise home markets, devoid of competition and for one’s own products. Depression also led to steady increase in the production of armaments. All these amounted to a new wave of militant nationalism directed towards the conquest of territories of economic importance.

The appeasement policy of imperial powers, more particularly France and Britain contributed for the outbreak of the II World War. It is the policy of giving concessions in the name of settling disputes and making compromises irrationally rather than admonishing the breakers of the principles. The policy of appeasement is generally associated with Neville Chamberlain, the well known prime minister of England. For example, Western powers supported the Fascist aggrandisement against USSR, in the name of USSR's dominance and policy of expansion. This policy of appeasement made the Fascist regimes more aggressive and militarily dominating. Naturally, this aggressive policy of the Fascists led to the outbreak of the War

The rise of Fascist regimes in Italy and Germany had their share in the outbreak of the Second World War. The Post First War developments led to the rise of Fascism in Italy and Nazism in Germany; both of them stood for military aggrandisement and expansion. They followed a policy of war rather than negotiations to take vengeance on their enemies. Their concept of nationalism and ethnicity furthered the cause of war, which in turn resulted in the II World war.

The miserable failure of the League of Nations was yet another factor that was responsible for the War. It failed to effect international peace and disarmament. Collective security and integrity among nations had been compromised and these were only in papers, It also failed miserably to take action against the aggressors, who openly and indirectly violated the principles and norms for safeguarding peace and security. This was further increased in the absence of its own military base. Thus by the late 1930s, the very existence of the league was either questioned or neglected.

The immediate provocation for the War was the invasion of Poland by Hitler on 1st September 1939. Even before that there were certain events that preceded the invasion. It all began with the Japanese occupation of Manchuria in 1931 and eventually Japan withdrew from the League of Nations. After quitting the League in 1933, Germany invaded Rhineland in 1936 violating the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles. Meanwhile, Italy also entered the race and invaded Ethiopia in 1935 and in the following year it was annexed and withdrew from the League.

Thus by 1936, a new block was in the making. The Fascist regimes of Italy and Germany formally agreed upon to work together in October 1936 and it was known as Rome – Berlin Axis. The year also witnessed the pact between Germany and Japan known as the Anti – Comintern Pact and naturally against the USSR. In 1937, Italy joined the Pact and the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis emerged. They were formally denoted by the term Axis Powers and were responsible for the beginning of the Second World War.

These powers, either individually or in groups started military aggressions. The first victim was Spain, in which both Italy and Germany interfered and supported the Fascists of Spain against the Republican government of Spain. This incident generated much alarm among the thinking men and it is often denoted as the 'dress rehearsal' of the Second World War.

The success of the Spanish incident was a morale booster to Hitler, who realising the psyche of the majority of the Austrians, marched to conquer Austria. And he accomplished it in 1938. Then he annexed a part of Czechoslovakia, known as Sudetenland. Instead of defending Hitler, the rulers of Britain and France jointly signed an agreement with Hitler. This was known as the Munich Pact, signed on 29th and 30th September 1938; this Pact acknowledged the right of Hitler in Sudetenland. Violating openly the provisions of the Munich Pact, Germany occupied the entire Czechoslovakia soon and both Britain and France did nothing to check the aggression.

As noted earlier, it was in these circumstances Germany attacked Poland. Meanwhile, Britain and France realised their appeasement policy and both of them signed a military agreement for extending support to Poland. Soon, on 23rd August 1939, Germany signed a Five Year Non Aggression Pact with USSR and as already stated, attacked Poland on 1st September 1939. On 3rd September, Britain and France declared war on Germany and often blamed Hitler starting the War.

In the attack, the Poles were defeated and Poland was partitioned between Germany and the USSR. Since there were no active battles, the early phase of the War is known as the 'Phoney War.' But after one year, the nature of the War began to change. In April 1940, Germany invaded Denmark and Norway and by June, Hitler succeeded in subduing Denmark, Norway, Luxemburg, Holland, Belgium and France. The fall of France turned the War in favour of Germany.

This was soon followed by German attack on Britain. The battles were fought in the air, better known as the Battle of Britain and in this war, Britain could make heavy losses to Germany, due to her superior air force.

Italy, soon entered in the war fray, and her main concern was centred on Africa and the Balkan area. In the skirmishes, Italy hardly succeeded, and Germany came to the rescue of Italy. The battles were fought in Europe and Germany succeeded in capturing Northern parts of Africa and the whole of the Balkan area. In this event, Germany was given support by Hungary, Rumania, Slovakia and Bulgaria and they became the allies of Axis Powers.

Having conquered almost all parts of Europe, Hitler turned his attention to conquer the Soviet Union. In blatant violation of the Non Aggression pact, Germany attacked the USSR in June 1941. The initial victory could not be brought forward and

Germany began to face defeats. In the battle of Stalingrad fought between 1941 and 1942, the combined forces of Britain and the USSR inflicted defeat on the Germans.

It was in this context that a new block, the British - Soviet - American amity emerged, while Japan joined the Axis Powers. On 7th December 1941, Japan attacked Pearl Harbour, the US naval base and the US army was in the losing side. This situation compelled the US to enter formally in the Second World War. The next day witnessed the declaration of war by the US against Japan. This made Japan back footed, after gaining victories in Asia, particularly in Hong Kong, Singapore, Java, Burma and Philippines.

With these developments, the war became a global war. With this, the Allied powers began to taste success. Thus, in 1943, the invasion of Italy by the Allied powers brought about the ousting of Mussolini from power in July 1943. Italy surrendered to the Allies on 9th September 1943 and thus began the liberation of the countries like Poland, Rumania, Bulgaria, Hungary and Czechoslovakia. Soon France was recaptured from the Germans and this was followed by the capture of Germany by the end of April 1945 and Hitler ended his life on 7th May of the same year.

But in Asia, the aggression of Japan continued incessantly and she rejected all the call for truce. This provoked the US and the US dropped atom bombs at Hiroshima on 6th August and at Nagasaki on 9th August. The dropping of atom bombs made unprecedented havocs to the people of these two cities and it still continues. By the middle of August, Japan surrendered unconditionally.

RESULTS OF THE SECOND WORLD WAR

The war had produced far reaching consequences in the history of mankind. The foremost result of the war was the emergence of two conflicting power blocks- the capitalist block under the US and the socialist block under the USSR. This divided the world into two conflicting power zones from which most of the nations cannot escape.

Another result was the end of European dominance over the world. This space was fully and aptly utilised by the US and the USSR.

The emergence of Cold war was another effect of the War. The power blocks began to engage themselves in fearing the other group that resulted in waging war at the time of peace.

The liberation of the colonies of the imperial powers was another remarkable outcome of the War. The decolonisation process received a boom after the war. Almost all colonies gained or seized independence by 1950; the most formidable was the liberation of India from the clutches of British colonialism.

The formation of the UNO is yet another significant result of the Second World War. In the wake of the failure of the League of Nations and in keeping the promise of materialising international peace and security and safeguarding the world from another global war, the UNO came into existence on 24th October 1945.

The growth and development of Third World countries and the formation of Non Alignment Movement were the other results of the War. Along with the UN, the NAM had and has been playing a vital role in safeguarding humanity from the outbreak of another global war.

The concerted efforts to control arms and ammunitions are yet another outcome of the war. The question of disarmament became a topic of heated discussions after the War that eventually resulted in the programme of NPT –Nuclear non Proliferation Treaty.

UNITED NATIONS ORGANISATION OR THE U N

One of outcomes of the Second World War was the formation of the UNO for safeguarding the world from another world war and the preserving peace in the globe. The failure of the League of Nations and the outbreak of the War prompted the thinking men of the times for setting up of a more powerful international organisation for global peace and security. It was in 1941 that Franklin Roosevelt, the president of the U S and Winston Churchill, the prime minister of England made the first effort and resultant Atlantic Charter was published. This Charter envisaged the setting up of a permanent system of global security against aggression and war. In the following year, an international conference was held in January in Washington. This conference attended by 26 nations accepted the Atlantic Charter and issued the Washington Declaration. It is in this Declaration that the term ‘United Nations’ was used for the first time.

The detailed plan and structure of the body were discussed and prepared at the subsequent conferences held in Moscow, Dumbarton Oaks and Yalta. These were followed by the San Francisco Conference. This Conference met in April 1945, completed the task of making final drafting and adopting the Charter of the United Nations. It was signed and approved by 51 member nations and the UNO formally came into existence on 24th October 1945.

The Article 1 of the Charter enumerates the basic objectives of the UN. They include:

- 1) To maintain international peace and security
- 2) To develop friendly relations among nations of the world
- 3) To solve economic, social and other problems through international co-operation and

4) To serve as centre for harmonising collective action in order to achieve these common objectives.

To achieve these objectives, the UN has different organs: The General Assembly, The Security Council, The Secretariat, The International Court of Justice, The Trusteeship Council and The Economic and Social Council. Besides these, the UN has other specialised organs as well.

The General Assembly is composed of all the members of the UN. Each nation has one vote and it is not a legislative body and is entitled to discuss all questions falling within the scope of the UN Charter.

The Security Council is the most powerful organ of the UN. It is designed to provide instructions and leadership to the functions of the UN as a whole. It is the powerful body and has been bestowed with real powers. The membership of this organ consists of Five Permanent and Ten Non permanent members. The Permanent members are China, Russia, the US, France and Britain, who are denoted as 'Big Five'. Both these groups are elected for a period of two years. The Permanent members enjoy veto power that often mal administers this body.

The Security Council is primarily responsible for the maintenance and preservation of international peace and security. It has the actual power to investigate any disputes or conflicts that may lead to tension or war. It is the apex body that controls the UN

The Secretariat is in charge of administrative and technical works of the UN. It is the office staff and amounts to almost 50,000 employees. Its head is the Secretary General elected for a period of five years by the General Assembly on the basis of the recommendations of the Security Council. The Secretary General chairs all meetings and he is the spokesperson of the UN. More than an administrator and a technocrat, the Secretary General is a diplomat in the sense that rather than interfering, he intervenes and tries to settle issues.

The Trusteeship Council is the supervisory body to administer territories, whose people have not yet won self government in its modern sense. Thus the council works for the governance of these non self governing territories and prepare themselves for getting independence.

The International Court of Justice is the judicial organ of the UN and works for settling all legal issues. It has 15 judges elected for nine years by the General Assembly and Security Council jointly. But it has no power to arrest and punish those who violate the norms of the UN.

The Economic and Social Council is the Co-ordinating body of almost all UN activities. It is concerned with all non political activities like health, education,

empowerment and other matters of social and economic significance. Thus it manages and appoints various commissions for settling population problems, drug problems, the issues of human right violations and travails of women. It is now known as ECOSOC

Apart from these agencies, the UN has number of specialised bodies, most of which are under the jurisdiction of the ECOSOC. The most important agencies are the Universal Postal Union (UNUPU), the International Telecommunications Union (UNITU), the International Labour Organisation (ILO), the World Health Organisation (WHO), the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO). The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) and the United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA)

The specialised agencies of the UN also include certain financial and economic bodies like the World Bank or the International Bank for Rural Development (IBRD), International Monetary Fund (IMF), and the General Agreement on Tariff and Trade (GATT).

The activities and functions of the UN are three fold: Peace keeping, decolonisation and socio economic and humanitarian concerns. As an international organisation, the UN has been and continues to be in the forefront of preventing another World War as well as preventing many wars and conflicts. It also stands in the main stream in settling disputes and conflicts, arranging cease fires, negotiations and mediations and deputing peace keeping force to maintain peace and security. It also plays a dominant role in curtailing arms and ammunitions and practicing disarmament.

In the non political field, the UN has excelled in many ways. It has been making concerted efforts to accomplish socio economic and humanitarian reforms at their maximum by providing basic amenities to almost all people around the globe. With the support of the international community, the UN has been in the forefront of safeguarding and protecting human rights all over the world.

This doesn't mean that the UN has nothing to achieve. The structure itself is a big limitation of the UN. The dominance of the big powers, the question of veto power and the shortage of army personnel have contributing for its minnow performance. It has become a 'Talking Body' has raised questions regarding its existence. Moreover, it has become a tool in the hands of the US and a non united organisation.

But despite these, in the unipolar world of domination, the UN has its own relevance. To certain extent it could prevent conflicts among nations ad with its glamour as an agency safeguarding human rights and providing basic amenities to the needy, the UN has an integral part of international politics and relations.

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