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HOW TO USE THE BOOK



Learning Objectives

The scope of the lesson is presented

Introduction

The subject to be discussed in the lesson is Introduced



QR Code

Leads the students to animated audio, video aids for getting experiential learning

Do You Know?

Provides additional information related to the subject in boxes to stir up the curiosity of students



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Activities for 'learning by doing' individually or in groups

Summary

Describes the main points briefly in bullets for recapitulation

Exercise

For self-study and self evaluation



Glossary

Key words and technical terms explained at the end of the lesson for clarity

Reference

List of books and net sources for further reading



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Unit - 1

Outbreak of World War I and Its Aftermath



Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- The race for colonies leading to rivalry and clashes among the great powers of Europe
- Emergence of Japan as the strongest and most aggressive power in East Asia
- Colonialism's impact on Africa
- Causes, course and results of the First World War
- Treaty of Versailles and its provisions
- Causes, course and outcome of the Russian Revolution
- Foundation, functioning and failure of the League of Nations



Introduction

1914 is a turning point in world history. The political and social processes that began in 1789 culminated in the First World War that broke out in that year and decisively shaped the course of the twentieth century. Historians therefore call this as 'the long nineteenth century'. This was the first industrial war that drew on the economic resources of the entire world, and also affected large sections of the civilian population. The political map of the world was redrawn. Three major empires lay shattered by the end of the War: Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottomans. The biggest outcome of the War was the Russian Revolution. It was a unique event as well as the first revolution of its kind in world history. For the first time, countries tried to bring about world peace through the League of Nations. In this lesson, we discuss the circumstances leading to the outbreak of the First World War and its repercussions, including the Russian Revolution and the formation of an international peace organisation, namely the League of Nations.

1.1 Scramble for Colonies

Capitalist Countries' Race for Markets

The aim of capitalistic industry was to produce more and more. The surplus wealth thus produced was used to build more factories, railways, steamships and other such undertakings. Revolution in the means of communication and transportation in the latter half of the nineteenth century facilitated the process of European expansion in Africa and other places.

Capitalism produced huge contrasts. The contrasts were: extreme poverty and extreme wealth, slum and skyscraper, empire-state and dependent exploited colony. A striking feature of nineteenth century was that Europe emerged as the dominant power while Asia and Africa were colonized and exploited. Within Europe, England held a pre-eminent position as the world leader of capitalism. An ever-growing demand for markets and raw materials made

the capitalist powers race around the world for expanding their empire for exploitation.

Rise of Monopoly Capitalism

After 1870, the alliance of industry and finance seeking profits in markets for goods and capital, which was an essential characteristic of imperialism, became evident in the latter half of the nineteenth century. The old ideas of free trade collapsed. There were trusts in the USA and cartels in Germany. These powerful combines and corporations dominated governments.

A trust is an industrial organisation engaged in the production or distribution of any commodity. The trust would possess adequate control over the supply and price of that commodity to its own advantage.

The term cartel refers to an association based upon a contractual agreement between enterprisers in the same field of business. The objective was to exercise a monopolistic influence on the market.

Imperialism and its Essential Characteristics

Capitalism inevitably led to imperialism. According to Lenin, imperialism is the highest stage of capitalism. Besides being a market for surplus goods, colonies served another purpose. Large-scale mass production needed vast supplies of raw materials. Rubber, oil, nitrates, sugar, cotton, tropical foodstuffs, mineral, etc., were raw materials which were necessary to monopoly capitalists everywhere. The need to control the sources of raw materials inevitably led to imperialism. Imperialism was not just about colonies. It became a total system, the logic of which was total militarisation and total war.

1.2 Rivalry of Great Powers

Europe

In the nineteenth century, European powers had colonised many other countries. By 1880, most of the Asian countries had

been colonised. Only Africa was left. The occupation, division and colonisation of Africa took place from 1881 to 1914. The industrial achievements of Germany in the latter half of the nineteenth century gave her a dominating position in Europe. But when Germany came on the scene the avenues of exploitation were limited, as the world was largely occupied by the other imperialist powers. As there was nowhere else to expand, the imperialist powers tried to grab other's possession. After 1870, England, France, Belgium, Italy and Germany joined in the scramble for colonies.

Clashes amongst Great Powers

Despite the lead in industrial growth and the control of a vast empire England was not satisfied. England was in competition with Germany and the United States, which were producing cheaper manufactured goods and thus capturing England's markets. National rivalry led to frequent clashes between these great powers in Asia and Africa and Europe.

The imperialist urge of the period is best illustrated by the following statement of Cecil Rhodes, Imperialist Prime Minister of South Africa, 'The world is nearly all parcelled out, and what there is left of it is being divided up, conquered, and colonised. To think of these stars that you see overhead at night, these vast worlds which we can never reach. I would annexe the planets if I could; I often think of that. It makes me sad to see them so clear and yet so far.'

Asia: The Rise of Japan

In Asia, Japan during this period (Meiji era from 1867 to 1912), imitating Western nations had become their equal in many respects. Though the outlook of the rulers still remained feudal, Japan took to Western education and machinery. With a modern army and navy, Japan had emerged as an advanced industrialised power. In imperialistic aggressions also Japan followed the Europe. In 1894 she forced a war on

China. The crushing defeat of China by little Japan in the Sino-Japanese War (1894-95) surprised the world. Despite the warning of the three great powers Russia, Germany and France – Japan annexed the Liaotung peninsula with Port Arthur. By this action Japan proved that it was the strongest nation of the East Asia.

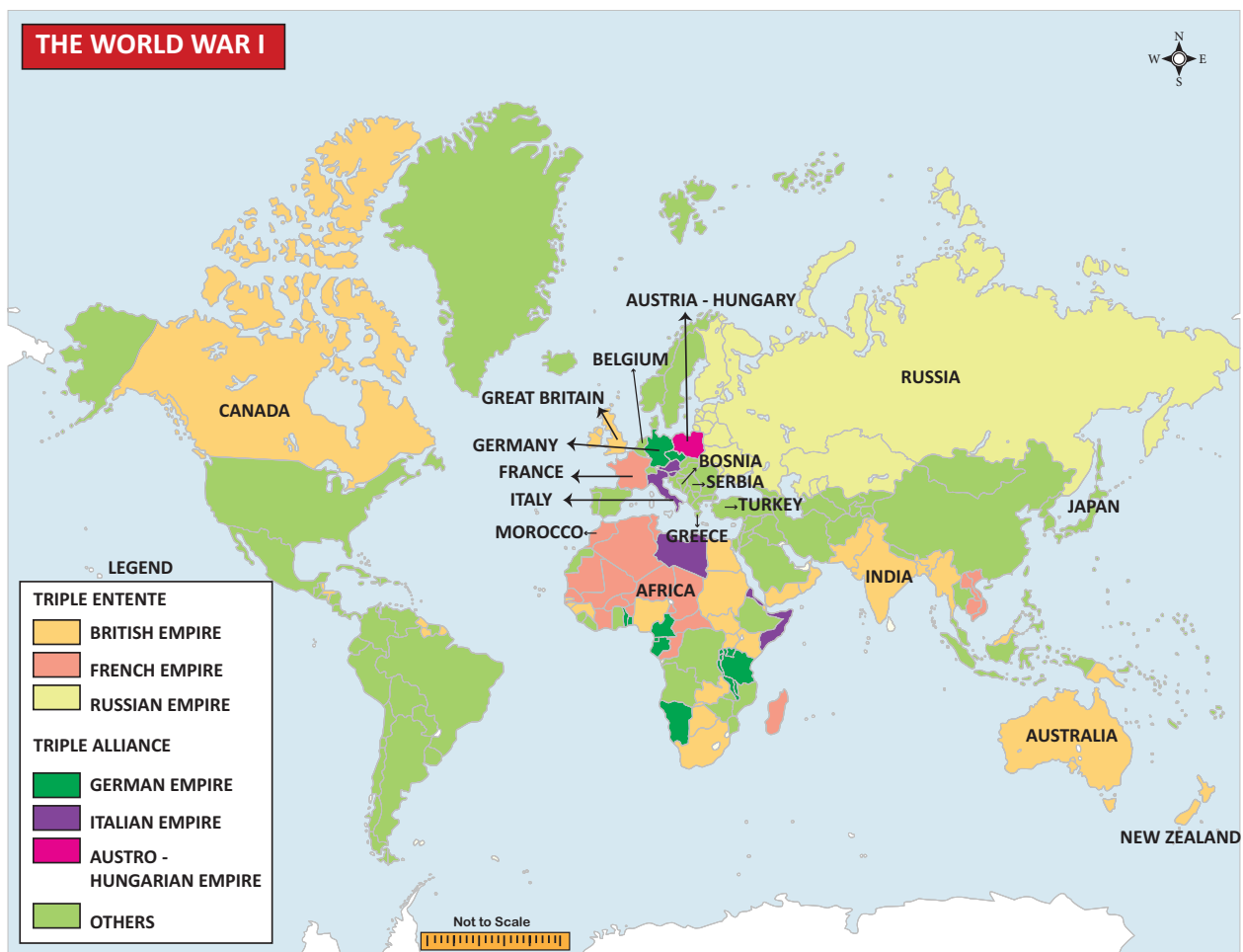
Japan, however, in view of the pressure mounted by European Powers, soon gave up its claim over Port Arthur. Russia took advantage of this and sent a large army to Manchuria. Japan entered into an alliance with England in 1902 and demanded that Russia withdraw troops from Manchuria. Russia underestimated Japan. In 1904 the war began between the two countries. In this Russo-Japanese War, Japan defeated Russia and got back Port Arthur. After this War Japan entered the “charmed circle of the great Powers”.

Strong-arm Diplomacy of Japan

After 1905 Japan took control of Korean domestic and foreign policy. The assassination of a prominent Japanese diplomat provided the excuse in 1910 for Japan’s annexation of Korea. The confusion in China following the downfall of the Manchu dynasty in 1912 provided Japan an opportunity for further expansion. Japan now demanded not only the transfer of German rights in Shantung to Japan and the recognition of Japanese hold over Manchuria, but the appointment of Japanese advisers to the Chinese government. This strong-arm diplomacy aroused the hostility of both China and the European Powers.

Colonisation and its Fallout

In 1876 barely 10 percent of Africa was under European rule. By 1900 practically the whole of Africa was colonised. Britain, France and Belgium had divided the



continent between them, leaving a few areas for Germany and Italy. Britain, France, Russia and Germany also established “spheres of influence” in China. Japan took over Korea and Taiwan. France conquered Indo-China. The US took the Philippines from Spain, and Britain and Russia agreed to partition Iran.

The first European attempts to carve out colonies in Africa resulted in bloody battles. The French had to fight a long and bitter war to conquer Algeria and Senegal. The British lost to the Zulus (1879) and to the Sudanese Army (1884). The Italian army suffered a devastating defeat at the hands of an Ethiopian army at Adowa (1896).

1.3 Causes, Course and Results of World War I

(a) Causes

European Alliances and Counter-Alliances

In 1900 five of the European Great Powers were divided into two armed camps. One camp consisted of the Central Powers—Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy. Under the guidance of Bismarck, they had formed the Triple Alliance in 1882. The understanding was that Germany and Austria would help each other. The other camp consisted of France and Russia. Their alliance was formed in 1894 with the promise of mutual help if Germany attacked either of them. An isolated Britain wanted to break her isolation and approached Germany twice but in vain. As Japan was increasingly hostile towards Russia, as France was the ally of Russia, it preferred to ally with Britain (1902). The Anglo-Japanese Alliance prompted France to seek an alliance with Britain to resolve colonial disputes over Morocco and Egypt. This resulted in the Entente Cordiale (1904). In return for letting the French have a free hand in Morocco, France agreed to recognize the British occupation of Egypt. Britain subsequently reached an agreement with Russia over Persia,

Afghanistan and Tibet. Thus was formed the Triple Entente of Britain, France and Russia.

Violent Forms of Nationalism

With the growth of nationalism, the attitude of “my country right or wrong I support it” developed. The love for one country demanded hatred for another country. England’s jingoism, France’s chauvinism and Germany’s Kultur were militant forms of nationalism, contributing decisively to the outbreak of War.

Aggressive Attitude of German Emperor

Emperor Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany was ruthlessly assertive and aggressive. The Kaiser proclaimed that Germany would be the leader of the world. The German navy was expanded. The sea being



Kaiser Wilhelm II considered a preserve of England ever since Napoleon’s defeat at Trafalgar (1805), Germany’s aggressive diplomacy and rapid building of naval bases convinced Britain that a German navy could be directed only against her. Therefore, Britain embarked on a naval race, which heightened the tension between the two powers.

Hostility of France towards Germany

France and Germany were old rivals. Bitter memories of the defeat of 1871 and loss of Alsace and Lorraine to Germany rankled in the minds of the French. German interference in Morocco added to the bitterness. The British agreement with France over Morocco was not consented by Germany. So Kaiser Wilhelm II intentionally recognised the independence of the Sultan and demanded an international conference to decide on the future of Morocco.

Imperial Power Politics in the Balkans

The Young Turk Revolution of 1908, an attempt at creating a strong and modern government in Turkey, provided both Austria and Russia with the opportunity to resume their activities in the Balkans. Austria and Russia met and agreed that Austria should annexe Bosnia and Herzegovina, while Russia should have freedom to move her warships, through the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, to the Mediterranean. Soon after this, Austria announced the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Austria's action aroused intense opposition from Serbia. Germany gave Austria firm support. Germany went to the extent of promising that if Austria invaded Serbia and in consequence Russia helped Serbia, Germany would come to Austria's assistance. The enmity between Austria and Serbia led to the outbreak of war in 1914.

The Balkan Wars

Turkey was a powerful country in the south west of Europe in the first half of eighteenth century. The Ottoman empire extended over the Balkans and across Hungary to Poland. The Empire contained many non-Turkish people in the Balkans. Both the Turks and their subjects of different nationalities in the Balkans indulged in the most frightful massacres and atrocities. The Armenian genocide is a frightful example.



Taking advantage of the political and economic instability of the Turkish Empire from the

second half of the eighteenth century, Greeks followed by others began to secede, one after another, from Turkish control. Macedonia had a mixed population. There were rivalries among Greece, Serbia, Bulgaria and later Montenegro for the control of it. In March 1912 they formed the Balkan League. The League attacked and defeated Turkish forces in the first Balkan War (1912–13). According to the Treaty of London signed in May 1913 the new state of Albania was created and the other Balkan states divided up Macedonia between them. Turkey was reduced to the area around Constantinople.



Treaty of Bucharest

The division of Macedonia, however, did not satisfy Bulgaria. Bulgaria attacked Serbia and Greece. But Bulgaria was easily defeated. The Second Balkan War ended with the signing of the Treaty of Bucharest in August 1913.

Immediate Cause

The climax to these events in the Balkans occurred in Sarajevo in Bosnia. On 28 June 1914 the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, nephew and heir



Franz Ferdinand

to Franz Joseph, Emperor of Austria-Hungary, was assassinated by Princip, a Bosnian Serb. Austria saw in this an opportunity to eliminate Serbia as an independent state. Germany thought that it should strike first. It declared



war on Russia on 1 August. Germany had no quarrel with France, but because of the Franco-Russian Alliance, the German army which was planning a war against both France and Russia wanted to use the occasion to its advantage. The German violation of Belgian neutrality forced Britain to enter War.

(b) Course of the War

Two Warring Camps Central Powers

The warring nations were divided into two. The Central powers consisted of Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria. Italy which was earlier with Germany and Austria had left, as her attempt to recover Trentino in north east Italy, where Italians lived in majority but remained as part and parcel of Austria-Hungary, was not supported by Germany. Italy remained a neutral country when the War broke out. But it decided to enter the War hoping to gain the territory in the north - east. Britain, France and Italy signed the secret Treaty of London in April 1915, by which Italy agreed to enter the War against the Central Powers in return for this territory after the War.

Allies

Nine states that opposed the Central powers were: Russia, France, Britain, Italy, the United States, Belgium, Serbia, Romania and Greece. Romania and Greece declared war on the Central Powers in 1916 and 1917 respectively but played little part in the war. Most Americans wanted their country to remain neutral and so in the first three years the United States gave only moral support and valuable material aid to Britain and France.

Tsar's Abortive Attempts for Peace

Tsar Nicholas II of Russia suggested to the Powers that they meet together to bring about an era of universal peace. In response, two Peace Conferences were held at The Hague in Holland in 1899 and 1907 but in vain. Russia fought on the side of the Allies.

War in Western or French Front

Germany steamrolled and smashed the resistance of the people of Belgium. On the side of the Allies, the burden of the fighting fell on the French army. Within a month Paris seemed almost doomed.

Battles of Tannenberg and Marne

Meanwhile Russian forces invaded East Prussia. Germany defeated them decisively. In



Battle of Tannenberg the battle of Tannenberg Russia suffered heavy losses. Yet this caused distraction and helped to relieve the pressure on the western front. The French army made all out efforts to drive away the invading Germans. At the Battle of the Marne (early September 1914), the French succeeded in pushing back the Germans. Paris was thus saved. The battle of Marne is a memorable for **trench warfare**.

Trench Warfare: Trenches or ditches dug by troops enabled soldiers to safely stand and



protect themselves from enemy fire. The typical trench system in World War consisted of two to four trench lines running parallel to each other. Each trench was dug in a type of zigzag so that no enemy, standing at one end, could fire for more than a few yards down its length. The main lines of trenches were connected to each other and to the rear by a series of linking trenches through which food, ammunition, fresh troops, mail, and orders were delivered. The sheer quantity of bullets and shells flying through the air in the battle conditions of First World War compelled soldiers to burrow into the soil to obtain shelter and survive.





Battle of Verdun

Between February and July 1916, the Germans attacked Verdun, the famous fortress in the French line. In the five-month Battle of Verdun two million men took part and half of them were killed. The British offensive against Germans occurred near the River Somme. In this four-month Battle of Somme Britain lost 20,000 men on the first day. The battle of Verdun, however, decided the fortunes of the War in favour of the Allies.

War in Eastern or Russian front

In the eastern front, Russian troops repeatedly defeated the Austrians. But the Russians were in turn defeated by the Germans. Russia had the worst trained and equipped army and therefore Russian losses were the greatest. In 1917, the Tsarist regime in Russia was overthrown in a revolution. Russia wanted peace and consequently it signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk (3 March 1918) with Germany. After this, the position of Germany became strong. It appeared as if the Allies were going to lose. However, USA came to their rescue and played the final decisive role in crushing Germany.

Minor Theatres of War In the Middle East

Turkey also fought on the side of the central powers. Though Turkey met with initial success and the Allies suffered reverses, particularly in Mesopotamia and Gallipoli, ultimately Turkey was defeated. The Turks tried to attack Suez Canal, but were repulsed. Britain attacked Turkey in Iraq, and later in Palestine and Syria. In Arabia, taking advantage of the growing Arab nationalism a revolt was engineered by a British Agent. Britain attacked Turkey directly and tried to capture Constantinople. But the Turks put up a brave fight.

In the Far East

China also joined the allies. Japan was able to capture the province of Kiauchau given by the Germans to China in the province of

Shantung. There was no war in the Far East. Japan made use of the occasion to threaten China into ceding valuable concessions and privileges.

In the Balkans

The Austro-German army in coordination with Bulgaria crushed Serbia. Serbia came under German rule. Rumania watched the course of the War and in August 1916 joined the Allies. Rumania also passed under Austro-German occupation.

Fate of Colonies of Germany in Africa

The German colonies in western and eastern Africa were also attacked by the Allies. As these colonies were quite far from Germany they could not receive any immediate help, and therefore surrendered to the Allies.

Italy falls to Austrian onslaught

Italy formally joined the Allies in the war in May 1916. Italians were fighting with the Austrians and continued to sustain their resistance. But when the Germans came to Austria's help, the Italians collapsed.

Central Powers' Victories

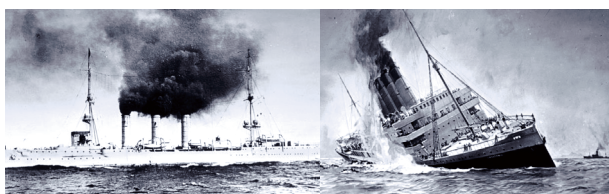
The Central Powers successfully occupied Belgium and a part of France in the north-east, Poland, Serbia and Romania.

The epicentre of the struggle was the western front and the seas. As the Allies controlled the sea-routes, they cut off the supply of food and other material reaching the Central Powers. In Germany and Austria women and children suffered from hunger and privation. Germany attacked England by air. Bombs were thrown on London and places where there were major factories. Later aeroplanes were used for targeting civilian population. The Germans introduced poison gas and soon both sides resorted to its use.

Naval Battles and America's Entry into the War

In 1916 a naval battle (**Battle of Jutland**) had taken place in the North Sea. The British

won the battle. Thereafter Germany started their submarine warfare and their cruisers went roaming about, interfering with the shipping of the Allies. One of these was the famous Emden, which bombarded Madras. As a counter measure to the blockade the Germans proclaimed in January 1917 that they would sink even neutral ships in certain waters. This meant that all ships in British waters, whether owned by countries involved in the War or not, would be targets for German submarines. *Lusitania*, an American ship, was torpedoed by a German submarine. There was a lot of resentment in the USA and President Wilson declared war against Germany in April 1917. America's entry with its enormous resources made Allied victory a foregone conclusion.



Emden

Sinking of Lusitania

German submarines were extremely effective. During March and April 1917 about six hundred merchant ships were sunk.



German Submarine

(c) The Armistice and Treaty of Versailles

Germany ultimately surrendered in November 1918. The armistice took effect from 11 November 1918. Germany was forced to accept harsh terms by the political situation at home with the abdication of the Kaiser.

Peace Conference in Paris



Paris Peace Conference

The Peace Conference opened in Paris in January 1919, two months after the signing of the armistice. Woodrow Wilson (USA), Lloyd George (Prime Minister of England) and Clemenceau (Prime Minister of France) played a very important part in the deliberations.



A News paper Report

Faced with a threat of a renewed war, the German government was forced to agree to the terms. On 28 June, 1919 the peace treaty was signed in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles.

Provisions of the Treaty

1. Germany was found guilty of starting the War and therefore was to pay reparations for the losses suffered. The Reparation Commission set up for deciding the compensation decided on 6,600 million pounds to be paid in instalments. All Central Powers were directed to pay war indemnity.
2. The German army was to be limited to 100,000 men. A small navy was allowed, but there were to be no submarines and no air force.
3. The union of Austria and Germany was forbidden and Germany was to acknowledge and respect the Independence of Austria.
4. Germany was forced to give up all the rights and titles over her overseas possessions to the allies. All German colonies became mandated territories under the League of Nations.
5. Germany was forced to revoke the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk (with Russia) and Bucharest (Bulgaria).
6. Alsace-Lorraine was returned to France.
7. The former Russian territories of Finland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania were to be independent

8. Northern Schleswig was given to Denmark and some small districts to Belgium.
9. Poland was recreated with a corridor to the Baltic containing the German port of Danzig which was to be a free city under the auspices of League of Nations.
10. The Rhineland was to be occupied by the Allies. The area on the east bank of the Rhine was to be demilitarized.

President Wilson laid down his Fourteen Points, which were to be followed by the Allies. The most important one he highlighted was the need for 'a general association of nations for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states like'. One of his interesting points was an opportunity to Russia 'for the independent determination of her own political development and national policy, and assistance also of every kind that she may need or desire.'

Criticism of the Peace Settlement

1. The defeated powers were absent from negotiations. The peace settlement, a dictated one, was based on the principle, 'to the victor belongs the spoils and the allies are the victors'.
2. Self-determination was the principle, which was one of the fourteen points of Woodrow Wilson for restoring peace, applied to all the peoples except the German.
3. The reparation of 6,600 million pounds was beyond Germany's capacity to pay.
4. Germany was weakened, politically and economically. But instead of having the large Russian and Austro-Hungarian empires on her eastern frontier, she was now bordered by small weak and new states.
5. Wilson betrayed the Germans and Austrians to whom he had made promises. In 1920 the United States took to a policy of isolation, when the Senate refused to ratify the Treaty of Versailles. Only a greatly weakened France, with the qualified support of Britain, was left to face Germany's potential strength.
6. Italy was much disappointed at the peace settlement. Despite suffering heavily she was given merely small places such as Trieste, Istria and the south Tyrol.
7. The population of Europe was so mixed that it was impossible to draw up clear national frontiers with ethnic homogeneity. Finally, the settlement created many national minorities within states. Countries gave promises to respect the rights of minorities. But often relations turned bitter.

Separate treaties were drawn up and signed by the Allies with Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey. The Treaty with Turkey (Treaty of Sevres), though accepted by the Sultan, failed because of the resistance of Mustafa Kemal Pasha and his followers.

Fallout of the First World War

The First World War left a deep impact on European society and polity. Through conscription, and through air raids, the War had involved and affected far more of the population than in the past. In the whole of the previous century, from the Napoleonic Wars to the Balkan Wars of 1912–1913, Europe had lost fewer than 4.5 million men. Now, at least 8 million had died in four years, while more than twice as many were wounded, and many crippled for life. Millions more had succumbed to the worldwide influenza of 1918. The outcome, in all countries, was imbalance between the sexes—a shortage of men. Soldiers came to be placed above civilians. Aggressive war propaganda and national honour occupied centre stage in the public sphere. Popular support grew in favour of dictatorship in state governance.

The War and its aftermath turned out to be a stirring period of history. The most striking of all was the rise and consolidation of the Soviet Union, the U.S.S.R or the Union of Socialist and Soviet Republics, as it was called. The United States of America escaping all the troubles the Western Europe had to suffer prospered exceedingly in the post-War years. America

entered the War as a debtor country but it emerged as the money-lender to the world in the aftermath of the War.

Another outstanding event of this period was the awakening of the colonies and their inspired attempts to gain freedom. In Asia and Africa powerful movements and in some places even rebellions against Western imperialism became order of the day.

Turkey's rebirth as a nation thanks to the role played by Mustafa Kemal Pasha was remarkable. Kemal Pasha modernised Turkey and changed it out of all recognition. He put an end to the Sultanate and the Caliphate. The support of the Soviet Union was of great help to him.

All the struggles for freedom in Asia and Africa illustrated how the new spirit abroad was affecting the minds of men and women in distant countries of the East simultaneously. The War gave a great fillip to the women's movement in the West and the East.

Impact on India

The First World War had a significant impact on India. Even though Europe was the main theatre of the War, fighting took place in others parts of the world as well. The British recruited a vast contingent of Indians to serve in Europe, Africa and West Asia. After the War, the soldiers came back with new ideas which had an impact on the Indian society. India contributed £ 230 million in cash and over £ 125 million in loans towards war expenses. India also sent war materials to the value £ 250 million. This caused enormous economic distress. There were grain riots as poor people looted shops. Towards the end of the War India too suffered under the world-wide epidemic of influenza. (£ - symbol of Pound sterling)

The War conditions led to the rise of Home Rule Movement in India. The Congress was reunited during the war. Western revolutionary ideas influenced the radical nationalists and so the British tried to suppress the national movement by passing repressive acts. International events

too had their impact on India, such as the revolution in Russia. The defeat of Turkey in World War I and the severe terms of the Treaty of Sevres signed thereafter undermined the position of Sultan of Turkey as Khalifa. Out of the resentment was born the Khilafat Movement.

India and Indians had taken an active part in the War believing that Britain would reward India's loyalty. But only disappointment was in store. Thus the War had multiple effects on Indian society, economy and polity.

1.4 Russian Revolution and its Impact

Introduction



The biggest outcome of the War, the Russian revolution, was unique in world history. The socio-political and economic conditions prevailing in Russia were brought to a head by the vast losses and sufferings caused by the War. There were really two revolutions in the year 1917, one in March and the other in November. On the abdication of the Tsar the bourgeois government which followed, wanted to continue the war. But the people were against it. So there was a second great uprising under the guidance their leader Lenin, who seized power and established a communist government in Russia.

Causes of the Revolution

Social Causes

In Russia Peter the Great and Catherine II attempted westernisation without changing the social conditions. The Russian peasants were serfs tied to lands owned by wealthy Russians. After Russia's defeat in the Crimean War, some reforms were introduced. In 1861 Tsar Alexander II abolished serfdom and emancipated the serfs. But they were not given enough land to subsist. These peasants became the powder keg for the revolution.

The labourers and workers whose number had increased on account of industrialisation were aggrieved as they got very low wages.

Role of Revolutionaries

The spread of revolutionary ideas among the intelligentsia and their repression by the Tsar's government made the socialistically inclined students to carry their propaganda to the peasantry. In course of time these students disillusioned with the outcome of their work with the peasants, took to "terrorism". Yet the revolutionary forces swelled, with the joining of the many minority groups like Jews and Poles. Soon, based on the Marxist philosophy, new ideas began to take shape and a Social and Democratic Labour Party was formed. The Marxists declared themselves against acts of terrorism. They believed that the working class had to be roused to action, and only by such mass action could they achieve their goal.

Autocracy of the Tsar

Tsar Nicholas II of Romanov dynasty had little experience of government. His wife Tsarina Alexandra was a dominant personality and Nicholas was under her strong influence. Nicholas mistrusted most of his ministers



Tsar Nicholas II

and he was surrounded by flatterers. Determined that Russia should not be left out in the scramble for colonial possessions, Nicholas encouraged Russian expansion in Manchuria. This provoked a war with Japan in 1904. The resulting Russian defeat led to strikes and riots. On 23 January 1905 Father Gapon, a priest, organised a march of men, women and children on the Tsar's Winter Palace in St. Petersburg demanding a representative national assembly and agrarian and industrial reforms. But police and soldiers fired on the procession. Hundreds were killed and many thousands wounded. The events of this day (known as Bloody Sunday) led to riots, strikes

and violence in which the governor-general of Moscow, an uncle of the Tsar, was killed by a bomb. Nicholas was forced to grant a constitution and establish a parliament, the Duma. This was no longer satisfactory to the left-wing parties that formed a Soviet (council) of worker's delegates in St Petersburg, led by Trotsky. Similar Soviets were set up in other cities. The Duma gave the middle classes, a voice in government. So the moderates were supportive of the government's policy, while the left wing continued their opposition.

Opposition to Tsar and Dissolution of Duma

The outbreak of the First World War had temporarily strengthened the monarchy, as Russia allied to France and Britain. As there was rumour of a palace revolution. Nicholas made himself the Commander-in-Chief of the army. At the end of 1916, Rasputin, who had a domineering influence over the Tsar and the Tsarina, was murdered by a member of the Tsar's family. The members of the St. Petersburg Soviet were arrested. Whenever the Duma opposed the Tsar's move, it was dissolved and fresh elections held. Without change of government policy, the fourth Duma ended with the revolution of 1917.

Popular Uprisings



Revolution of 1917

Even on 23 February 1917, when the socialists celebrated International Working Women's Day on that day, the Tsar seemed unchallengeable. But he had to abdicate on the morning of 2 March. Though none called for strikes fearing that the time was not

ripe for militant action, the bread shortages among women textile workers, many with husbands in the army, forced them to go on strike anyway and march through the factory areas of Petrograd, the capital of the Russian Empire. Masses of women workers demanding “Bread for workers” waved their arms towards factory workers and shouted “Come out!” “Stop work!” The city’s 400,000 workers joined the movement the next day (24 February).

Abdication of Tsar

The government used the troops to break the strike. But soon mutinies broke out in the barracks. The Tsar ordered a declaration of martial law. But his order was not broadcast in the city, as there was no one to do this job. The Tsar then tried to return to Petrograd. The railway workers stopped his train. The generals at the front and some leaders in Petrograd, frightened by these developments pleaded with the Tsar to abdicate. On 15 March, Nicholas II abdicated.

The revolutionary Tamil poet Bharathiyar cheerfully welcomed the revolution in Russia by penning these poetic lines.....

The Mother Great, the Power supreme,
Turned her glance benign towards Russia,
The Revolution of the Age,
Behold the wonder, rises high
The tyrant howling falls down limp,
The shoulders of the heavenly gods,
Are swelling now with joy and pride,
Eyes hot with unshed tears, the demons,
Perish. O people of the world,
Behold this mighty change!

Provisional Government

There were two parallel bodies to take on government functions. One was of the bourgeois politicians of the old state Duma, comprising propertied classes. On the other there were workers’ delegates drawn together

in a workers’ council, or Soviet. The workers’ delegates in the Soviet were influenced by the underground left-wingers. Those in the Duma were able to form a provincial government with the consent of the Soviets. The Soviet was dominated by Mensheviks and the minority Bolsheviks were timid and undecided. The situation changed with the arrival of Lenin.

Lenin was born in 1870 near the Middle Volga to educated parents. Influenced by the ideas of Karl Marx, Lenin believed that the way for freedom was through mass action.



Lenin

He spent his time taking classes for study groups of factory workers in St Petersburg on Marxism. He was arrested in 1895 and kept in Siberia. The Social Democratic Party, split on the issue of organisation and strategy. Lenin gained the support of a small majority (bolshinstvo), known as Bolsheviks, which became the Bolshevik Party. His opponents, in minority (menshinstvo), were called Mensheviks.

Failure of Provisional Government

Lenin was in Switzerland when the revolution broke out. Lenin wanted continued revolution. His slogan of ‘All power to the Soviets’ soon won over the workers’ leaders. Devastated by war time shortages, the people were attracted by the slogan of ‘Bread, Peace and Land.’ But the Provisional government made two grave mistakes. First, it postponed a decision on the demand for the redistribution of land and the other was government decided to continue with the war. Frustrated peasant soldiers deserted their posts and joined those who had resorted to land grabbing. This intensified the rising in Petrograd led by Bolsheviks. The government banned *Pravda* and arrested all Bolsheviks. Trotsky was also arrested. Kerensky became Prime Minister leading a new coalition of liberals and moderate Socialists. Faced with an

attempted coup Kerensky tried in September to dismiss both the government and the Soviet.

Takeover by the Bolshevik Party under Lenin's leadership

In October Lenin persuaded the Bolshevik Central Committee to decide on immediate revolution. Trotsky prepared a detailed plan. On 7 November the key government buildings, including the Winter Palace, the Prime Minister's headquarters, were seized by armed factory workers and revolutionary troops. On 8 November 1917 a new Communist government was in office in Russia. Its head this time was Lenin. The Bolshevik Party was renamed the Russian Communist Party.

Outcome of the Revolution

The Russian Communist Party eliminated illiteracy and poverty in Russia within a record time. Russian industry and agriculture developed remarkably. Women were given equal rights, including rights to vote. Industries and banks were nationalised. Land was announced as social property. Land was distributed to poor peasants. Lenin thought the most important factor for the fall of Provisional government was its failure to withdraw from World War. So Lenin immediately appealed for peace. Unmindful of the harsh terms dictated by the Central Powers, Lenin opted for withdrawing from the War to concentrate on the formation of new government. In March 1918 the Treaty of Brest– Litovsk was signed.

Global Influence of the Russian Revolution

The revolution fired people's imagination across the world. In many countries, communist parties were formed. The Russian communist government encouraged the colonies to fight for their freedom. Debates over key issues, land reforms, social welfare, workers' rights, and gender equality started taking place in a global context.

Pravda is a Russian word meaning "Truth". It was the official newspaper of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union from 1918 to 1991.

1.5 League of Nations

Structure and Composition

The Covenant of the League was worked out at the Paris Peace Conference and included in each of the treaties that were signed after the First World War. It was largely due to the pressure from President Wilson that this task was accomplished. In drawing up the constitution of this organization, the ideas of Britain and America prevailed.

The League consisted of five bodies: the Assembly, the Council, the Secretariat, the Permanent Court of Justice, and the International Labour Organisation. Each member-country was represented in the Assembly. It discussed general policy and any decision taken in the Assembly had to be unanimous. The Council was the executive of the League. Britain, France, Italy, Japan and the United States were originally declared permanent members of the Council. Each member had one vote and since all decisions had to be unanimous, even the small nations possessed the right of veto.

The secretariat of the League of Nations was located at Geneva. Its first Secretary General was Sir Eric Drummond from Britain. The staff of the secretariat was appointed by the Secretary General in consultation with the Council. The International Court of Justice was set up in The Hague. The court was made of fifteen judges. The International Labour Organisation comprised a secretariat and general conference which included four representatives from each country.

Objectives of the League

The two-fold objective of the League of Nations was to avoid war and maintain peace in the world and to promote international cooperation in economic and social affairs. The League intended to act as conciliator and arbitrator and thereby resolve a dispute in its early stages. If wars should break out despite arbitration, the members should apply sanctions to the aggressor first economic and then military.

The difficulty in achieving the objectives was increased from the beginning by the absence of three Great Powers namely USA (did not become a member), Germany (a defeated nation) and Russia. The latter two joined in 1926 and 1934. While Germany resigned in 1933, Russia was expelled in 1939.

Activities of the League

The League was called in to settle a number of disputes between 1920 and 1925. The League was successful in three issues. In 1920 a dispute arose between Sweden and Finland over the sovereignty of the Åland Islands. The League ruled that the islands should go to Finland. In the following year the League was asked to settle the frontier between Poland and Germany in Upper Silesia, which was successfully resolved by the League. The third dispute was between Greece and Bulgaria in 1925. Greece invaded Bulgaria, and the League ordered a ceasefire. After investigation it blamed Greece and decided that Greece was to pay reparations. Thus the League had been successful until signing of the Locarno Treaty in 1925. By this treaty, Germany, France, Belgium, Great Britain, and Italy mutually guaranteed peace in Western Europe. Thereafter Germany joined the League and was given a permanent seat on the Council. After two years the US and Russia began to participate in the non-political activities of the League.

Violations

One of the major problems confronting the European powers was how to achieve

disarmament. In 1925 the Council of the League set up a commission to hold a Disarmament Conference to sort out the problem. But the proposed conference materialised only in February 1932. In this Conference, Germany's demand of equality of arms with France was rejected. In October Hitler withdrew Germany from the Conference and the League.

Japan attacked Manchuria in September 1931 and the League condemned Japan. So Japan also followed the example of Germany and resigned from the League. In the context of Italy's attack on Ethiopia, the League applied sanctions. As the sanctions came into effect, Italy resigned from the League in 1937. Thereafter the League was a passive witness to events, taking no part in the crises over the Rhineland, Austria, Czechoslovakia and Poland. The last decisive action it took was in December 1939 when Russia was expelled for her attack on Finland. The Assembly did not meet again and the League of Nations was finally dissolved in 1946.

Causes of Failure

The League appeared to be an organisation of those who were victorious in the First World War. Though it had a world-wide membership, it became very much the centre of European diplomacy.

The unanimity of members was required for all its decisions on political issues. Since it lacked the military power of its own, it could not enforce its decisions.

The founders of this peace organisation underestimated the power of nationalism. The principle of 'collective security' could not be applied in actual practice.

When Italy, Japan and Germany, headed by dictators, refused to be bound by the orders of the League, Britain and France were the only major powers to act decisively. But they were not enthusiastic supporters of the League, as it was the brainchild of Wilson who could not even convince his country to join the League.

SUMMARY

- Capitalistic countries' ever growing demand for markets and raw materials leading to scramble for colonies and the resultant clashes amongst great powers in Europe are discussed.
- Rise of Japan as an Imperial Power in Asia is highlighted
- Division of Europe into two warring camps and the resultant alliances and counter-alliances are detailed.
- Important factors responsible for the outbreak of World War I such as growth of violent forms of Nationalism, aggressive attitude of Germany, France's hostility towards Germany for the loss of its territories, Alsace and Lorraine, power politics in Balkans are explained.
- Conduct of War in Western, Eastern Fronts and in minor theatres of War is described.
- America's entry into the War in the context of launch of submarine battles by Germany and the decisive victory won by the Allies are outlined.
- Paris Peace Conference and the provisions of Versailles Treaty are analysed.
- Fallout of the First World War, with focus on Russian Revolution causes, course and impact are elaborated.
- First world peace organisation the League of Nations and its role in preventing wars and promoting peace are critically examined.

A-Z GLOSSARY

skyscraper	tall building of many stories	பலமாடிகள் கொண்ட உயரமான கட்டிடம்
monopoly	exclusive possession or control	முற்றுகை
devastating	highly destructive or damage	பேரழிவு
jingoism	blind patriotism, especially in the pursuit of aggressive foreign policy	கண்மூடித்தனமான நாட்டுப்பற்று
chauvinism	extreme patriotism	அதிதீவிரப்பற்று
kultur	thinking highly of German civilization and culture	ஜெர்மானியக் கலாச்சாரத்தை மிக உயர்வாக நினைப்பது
trench	a long narrow ditch	பதுங்குக் குழி
repulse	drive back	எதிரியை விரட்டி அடித்தல்
torpedo	attack or sink (a ship) with a torpedo	மூழ்கடி
reparation	compensation	இழப்பீடு
homogeneity	the quality or state of being homogenous	ஒரினத்தன்மை
bourgeois	characteristic of the middle class, typically with reference to its perceived materialistic values or conventional attitudes	முதலாளித்துவ
intelligentsia	intellectuals or highly educated people as a group, especially when regarded as possessing culture and political influence	அறிவுஜீவிகள், நுண்ணறிவாளர்கள்
persuade	cause (someone) to do something through reasoning or argument	வற்புறுத்து



EXERCISE



DM4YNV

I. Choose the correct answer

- What were the three major empires shattered by the end of First World War?
 - Germany, Austria Hungary, and the Ottomans
 - Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia
 - Spain, Portugal and Italy
 - Germany, Austria-Hungary, Italy
- Where did the Ethiopian army defeat the Italian army?
 - Delville
 - Orange State
 - Adowa
 - Algiers
- Which country emerged as the strongest in East Asia towards the close of nineteenth century?
 - China
 - Japan
 - Korea
 - Mongolia
- Who said "imperialism is the highest stage of capitalism"?
 - Lenin
 - Marx
 - Sun Yat-sen
 - Mao Tsetung
- What is the Battle of Marne remembered for?
 - air warfare
 - trench warfare
 - submarine warfare
 - ship warfare
- Which country after the World War I took to a policy of isolation?
 - Britain
 - France
 - Germany
 - USA
- To which country did the first Secretary General of League of Nations belongs?
 - Britain
 - France
 - Dutch
 - USA
- Which country was expelled from the League of Nations for attacking Finland?
 - Germany
 - Russia
 - Italy
 - France

II. Fill in the blanks

- Japan forced a war on China in the year _____.

- The new state of Albania was created according to the Treaty of _____ signed in May 1913.
- Japan entered into an alliance with England in the year _____.
- In the Balkans _____ had mixed population.
- In the battle of Tannenberg _____ suffered heavy losses.
- _____ as Prime Minister represented France in Paris Peace Conference.
- _____ became Prime Minister leading a new coalition of liberals and moderate Socialists before Lenin established the Bolshevik government.
- Locarno Treaty was signed in the year _____.

III. Choose the correct statement

- Italy remained a neutral country when the World War broke out.
 - Italy was much disappointed over the peace settlement at Versailles.
 - The Treaty of Sevres was signed with Italy.
 - Italy was denied even small places such as Trieste, Istria and the south Tyrol.
 - i) and ii) are correct
 - iii) is correct
 - iv) is correct
 - i), iii) and iv) are correct
- The Turkish Empire contained many non-Turkish people in the Balkans.
 - Turkey fought on the side of the central powers
 - Britain attacked Turkey and captured Constantinople
 - Turkey's attempt to attack Suez Canal but were repulsed.
 - i) and ii) are correct
 - i) and iii) are correct
 - iv) is correct
 - i), ii) and iv) are correct
- Assertion:** Germany and the United States were producing cheaper manufactured goods and capturing England's markets.

Reason: Both the countries produced required raw material for their industries.

- Both A and R are correct
- A is right but R is not the correct reason
- Both A and R are wrong
- R is right but it has no relevance to A.

4. **Assertion:** The first European attempts to carve out colonies in Africa resulted in bloody battles.

Reason: There was stiff resistance from the native population.

- Both A and R are correct
- A is right but R is not the correct reason
- Both A and R are wrong
- R is right but it has no relevance to A.

IV. Match the following

- Treaty of Brest- Litovsk - Versailles
- Jingoism - Turkey
- Kemal Pasha - Russia with Germany
- Emden - England
- Hall of Mirrors - Madras

V. Answer briefly

- How do you assess the importance of Sino-Japanese War?
- Name the countries in the Triple Entente.
- What were the three militant forms of nationalism in Europe?
- What do you know of trench warfare?
- What was the role of Mustafa Kemal Pasha?
- Highlight the global influence of Russian Revolution?
- List out any two causes for the failure of the League of Nations.

VI. Answer all the questions given under each caption

- Imperialism
 - What do you know of monopoly capitalism?
 - How did Japan emerge as an imperial power?
 - Why did the industrial countries need colonies in the nineteenth century?
 - What were the contrasts capitalism produced?

- German Emperor
 - What was the nature of Emperor Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany?
 - What was the violent form of Germany called?
 - Why did Kaiser Wilhelm intervene in the Morocco affair?
 - What happened to Germany's colonies in Africa?
- Balkan Wars
 - Why was Balkan League formed?
 - What was the outcome of the first Balkan War?
 - Who were defeated in this war?
 - What was the name of the Treaty signed at the end of this second Balkan War?

VII. Answer the following in detail

- Discuss the main causes of the First World War.
- Highlight the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles relating to Germany.
- Explain the course of the Russian Revolution under the leadership of Lenin.
- Estimate the work done by the League of Nations, pointing out the reasons for its failure?

VIII. Activity

- Students can be taught to mark the places of battles and the capital cities of the countries that were engaged in the War.
- An assignment or a project work on the role of Indian soldiers in different battle fields across the globe and the casualties they suffered during the War be attempted by the students.

IX. Map Work

Mark the following countries on the world map.

- Great Britain
- Germany
- France
- Italy
- Morocco
- Turkey
- Serbia
- Bosnia
- Greece
- Austria-Hungary
- Bulgaria
- Rumania

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Timeline

- 1914 - Outbreak of World War I
- 1917 - Russian Revolution
- 1918 - End of the World War I
- 1919 - Treaty of Versailles
- 1920 - Establishment of League of Nation



ICT CORNER

Through this activity you will learn about Time Line Events of World War -I



Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Click on 'Learn' in menu and Select 'Interactive Timeline'
- Drag the Time line bar and click to see the events



Unit - 2

The World between Two World Wars



Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- The post-World War I developments leading to the Great Depression, and its impact on politics across the world.
- The unjust provisions of Treaty of Versailles and the rise of fascist governments led by Mussolini in Italy and Hitler in Germany.
- Anti-colonial struggles and the decolonisation process in the colonized world: Case Studies of Indo-French in South-East Asia and India in South Asia.
- European Colonisation in Africa – The case of Britain in South Africa.
- Independence struggles and political developments in South America



Introduction

The First World War shattered the global capitalist system based on European imperialism. The European powers were gravely weakened by the War, financially and politically. The trade and financial imbalances left by the war and the harsh peace that followed created instabilities throughout the 1920s. The conflict between the workers and the ruling classes that controlled the government became intense. As a result of this Fascism emerged in Italy and Germany. Anti-colonial struggles got intensified as the colonial powers were weakened by the War. The Soviet Union's role in extending solidarity to the struggling nationalist movements also went a long way in accelerating the process of decolonisation in Asia. It was the high noon of imperialism in Africa during the inter-war period. In contrast, the independence to the Latin American countries had occurred even before the first half of nineteenth century.

But they had to soon confront their protector turned exploiter, the USA.

As we saw in the last chapter, the crisis in the Western world had led to the outbreak of World War I. We now turn to the social and political developments in the world after the end of the War.

2 The Great Depression

2.1 Developments in the post-World War I

The First World War led to the expansion of certain industries in the hope that the war-time boom would continue. However, when the War came to an end, the industries that grew to meet war-time requirements had to be abandoned or modified. Huge stocks had to be disposed off and large numbers of workers had to be sacked. This bred dissatisfaction among the working classes. The situation was made worse by the political complications caused

by the Treaty of Versailles. A new wave of economic nationalism which expressed itself in protectionism or in tariff barriers affected world trade. The war also placed a heavy burden of debt on every European country.

Withdrawal of American Capital

At the end of the World War I, America was financially in a sound position. As the moneylender to the world America encouraged the flow of capital into Europe, which helped the European debtor countries. The capital outflow also found outlet in new investments. But these investments yielded profits only after a period. In the meantime, a slump in the U.S. economy forced the government to impose restrictions on the export of capital. This resulted in a steep decline in the volume and value of exports all over the world.

Stock Market Crash in the US

The withdrawal of American capital was aggravated by the US market crash in 1929. The first huge crash occurred on 24 October 1929. This discouraged investors and consumers to such an extent that more and more people began to sell their shares and dispose of their stocks. But there were no buyers. This was followed by the failure of American banks. The American financiers were forced to recall their own funds invested abroad. The stoppage of loans to Germany by America led to the failure of two large German banks. The Bank of England also found itself in bankruptcy.



New York Stock Market Crash, 1929-30

Breakdown of the International System of Exchange

Despite emergency measures such as cutbacks in expenditure and increased taxation, the situation did not improve in England. So England decided to leave the Gold Standard. Immediately a great number of countries left the gold standard. Each nation adopted a policy of protectionism and devaluation of currency. Devaluation forced creditors to stop lending. This led to a worldwide credit contraction. Thus the defensive measures adopted by various nations to safeguard their economic interests led to an unprecedented decline in world economic activity. As its effect was deep and prolonged economists and historians call it the Great Depression.

Repercussion in Politics

The Depression changed the political conditions in several countries. In England, the Labour Party was defeated in the general elections of 1931. In the USA, the Republican Party was rejected by the people in successive elections for about twenty years after the Depression.

Gold Standard is a monetary system where a country's currency or paper money carried a value directly linked to gold. Countries in the Gold Standard agreed to convert paper money into a fixed amount of gold.

2.2 Rise of Fascism and Nazism

(a) The Impact of War in Italy

The first of the nations of Western Europe to turn against the old ruling regime was Italy. During World War I the primary task of Italy was to keep the Austrians occupied on the Southern Front, while the British, French and Americans cornered Germany into submission along the battle lines in Flanders. The financial cost of the participation in the War was huge. Moreover, after the War, in the sharing of the spoils, Italy

got less than she expected. The country suffered heavy losses in a war that was unpopular with both socialists and pro-Austrian Catholics. The nationalists were equally unhappy with the marginal gain in territory from the Treaty of Versailles. The War resulted in inflation. There were frequent protests and strikes. People held the rulers responsible for the humiliation at Versailles.

Emergence of Mussolini

In the elections held November 1919 in the aftermath of the Treaty of Versailles, Italian socialists, proclaiming that they were following Bolshevism (Communism in Soviet Russia), won about a third of the seats. Mussolini, son of a blacksmith and qualified as an elementary school master, in the end became a journalist with socialist views. A forceful speaker, Mussolini began to support the use of violence and broke with the socialists when they opposed Italy's entry into the War. When the Fascist Party was founded in 1919 Mussolini immediately joined it. As Fascists stood for authority, strength and discipline, support came from industrialists, nationalists, ex-soldiers, the middle classes and discontented youth. The Fascists resorted to violence freely. In October 1922, in the context of a long ministerial crisis, Mussolini organised the Fascist March on Rome. Impressed by the show of force, the King invited Mussolini to form a government. The inability of the Democratic Party leaders to combine and act with resolution facilitated Mussolini's triumph.

Fascism is a form of radical authoritarian ultra-nationalism, characterised by dictatorial power, forcible suppression of opposition and strong regimentation of society and of the economy, which came to prominence in early 20th-century Europe. –Wikipedia.

Fascists under Mussolini

In the 1924 elections, after intimidation of the electors, 65 per cent of the votes were cast for the Fascists. Matteotti, a socialist leader, who questioned the fairness of the elections

was murdered. The opposition parties boycotted the Parliament in protest. Mussolini reacted by banning opposition parties and censoring the press. Opposition leaders were killed or imprisoned.



Mussolini

Assuming the title of Il Duce (the leader), in 1926 he became a dictator with power to legislate. He passed a law forbidding strikes and lockouts. Unions and employers were organized into corporations which would settle wages and working conditions. In 1938 Parliament was abolished and was replaced by a body representing the Fascist Party and the corporations. This new arrangement bolstered Mussolini's dictatorial control of the economy, as well as enabling him to wield enormous power as head of the administration and the armed forces.

Mussolini's Pact with Pope

In order to give respectability to the Fascist Party, Mussolini won over the Roman Catholic Church by recognising the Vatican City as an independent state. In return the Church recognised the Kingdom of Italy. The Roman Catholic faith was made the religion of Italy and compulsory religious teaching in school was ordered. The Lateran Treaty incorporating the said provisions was signed in 1929.

Italy during the Great Depression

During the years of the Great Depression the much publicised public works of building new bridges, roads and canals, hospitals and schools did not provide solution to the unemployment problem. In 1935, Mussolini invaded Ethiopia. This was useful to divert attention of the people away from the economic troubles. Mussolini drew admiration from ruling classes elsewhere in Europe. Among them was a rising figure among nationalist, anti-Semitic circles in Munich was Adolf Hitler.

(b) Germany in the post-War

From 1918 to 1933 Germany was a republic. The factors which led to the eventual triumph of Fascism in Germany were many. Between 1871 and 1914 Germany had risen to dizzy heights of economic, political and cultural accomplishments. Germany's universities, its science, philosophy and music were known all over the world. Germany had surpassed even Britain and the US in several fields of industrial production. As we saw in the earlier chapter this was at the root of the outbreak of the First World War. Then came the crushing defeat in the First World War. The German people were demoralized. The reparations and other clauses in the Treaty of Versailles caused acute discontent and hardship. This was utilized by reactionary forces to spread the idea that Socialists and Jews had let down the nation, and had even caused the Germany's defeat.

Germany's defeat and humiliation at the end of World War I caused a deep shock to the German people. The Great Depression further deepened their frustration and prompted them to turn against the Republican government.

Evolution of German Fascism

The origin of German fascism goes back to 1919 when a group of seven men met in Munich and founded the National Socialist German Workers' Party (abbreviated as Nazi Party). One of them was Adolf Hitler. Hitler had developed violent political biases against Jews. He associated Judaism with Marxism. During World War I, he served in the Bavarian army. A gifted speaker, he could whip up the passion of the audience. In 1923 Hitler attempted to capture power in Bavaria. His premature launch of the National Revolution on the outskirts of Munich landed him in prison. During his time in prison wrote *Mein Kampf* (My Struggle), an autobiographical book containing his political ideas. In the Presidential election of 1932, the Communist Party polled about 6,000,000 votes. Alarmed capitalists and property owners tilted towards supporting fascism Hitler exploited this opportunity to usurp powers.



Hitler

The Nazi State of Hitler

Republican government fell, as the Communists refused to collaborate with the Social Democrats. Thereupon industrialists, bankers and Junkers prevailed upon President Von Hindenburg to designate Hitler as Chancellor in 1933. The Nazi state of Hitler, known as Third Reich, brought an end to the parliamentary democracy.

Hitler replaced the flag of the Weimar republic by the swastika banners of National Socialism. Germany was converted into a highly centralised state. All political parties except the Nazi party were declared illegal. The army of brown-shirted and jack-booted storm-troopers was expanded. The Hitler Youth was created, and the Labour Front set up. Trade unions were abolished, their leaders arrested. Strikes were made illegal, wages were fixed by the government, and the Labour Front was used by the Nazis to control industry. Total state control was extended over the press, the theatre, the cinema, radio and over education.

The Nazi Party's propaganda was led by Josef Goebbels, who manipulated public opinion through planned propaganda. He once said, 'any lie frequently repeated will ultimately gain belief.' The Gestapo or Secret State Police was formed and run by Himmler.

Nazi Policy towards Jews

Along with the repressive measures, Hitler's government followed a policy of repressing Jewish people. The Jews were removed from government positions, excluded from the universities and deprived of citizenship.

Jewish businesses were closed down, and their establishments were attacked. After the outbreak of World War II concentration camps, barracks surrounded by electrified fences and watch towers, were built where Jews were interred and used as forced labour. Later they were turned into extermination camps where industrial means of murder such as gas chambers were used to kill them. It is estimated that about 6 million Jews in Europe were killed in what the Nazis termed 'The Final Solution'. The Nazi state also exterminated gypsies, and other itinerant communities, and the mentally challenged.

Himmler's second in command was Heydrich, who was responsible for the concentration camps.

Defiance of the Treaty of Versailles

In August 1934 Hindenburg died and Hitler, apart from being Chancellor, became both President and Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces. Hitler's foreign policy aimed at restoring the armed strength of Germany and annulling provisions of Versailles Treaty. His deliberate attempts to breach the Treaty of Versailles (discussed in the next lesson) led to the outbreak of Second World War.

2.3 Anti-Colonial Movements and Decolonisation Processes in Asia

Decolonisation is a process through which colonial powers transferred institutional and legal control over their colonies to the indigenous nationalist governments.

(a) French Indo-China Rise of Anti-Colonialism

Indo-China (today's Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam) had shown its discontent right from the beginning of the French occupation (1887). While the Indo-Chinese resisted the imposition of French language and culture, they learned from them the ideas of revolution. During the First World War about 100,000 Indo-Chinese fought in France and returned with first-hand knowledge of how the French had fought and suffered during the War. Communist ideas from mainland China were also a major influence. Many became convinced that the considerable wealth of Indo-China was benefiting only

Social Democratic Party was founded as the General German Workers Association on 23 May 1863 in Leipzig. Founder was Ferdinand Lassalle. German elites of the late 19th century considered the very existence of a socialist party a threat to the security and stability of the newly unified Reich, and so Bismark outlawed this party from 1878 to 1890.

Despite laws prohibiting the party from holding meetings and distributing literature, the Social Democratic Party attracted growing support. Following World War I, the Social Democratic Party played a central role in the formation of the Weimar Republic. But the failure to win favourable terms from the Allies and the country's severe economic problems led to a drop in people's support.

Although its core support among blue-collar workers remained intact, it lost support among white-collar workers and small businessmen, many of whom switched their loyalty to the conservatives and later to the Nazi Party. The Social Democratic Party was outlawed soon after the Nazis came to power. The leading Social Democrats were arrested and sent to concentration camps. However, in 1945, with the fall of Hitler, the Social Democratic Party was revived. It was the only surviving party from the Weimar period with a record of opposition to Hitler.

the colonial power. At the turn of the twentieth century growing nationalism led to sporadic violent outbursts. In 1916 there was a major anti-colonial revolt which was crushed brutally. There were also guerrilla activities in Tongking, the place from where Ho Chi Minh was to arrive.

The Emergence of Viet Minh

The mainstream political party in Indo-China was the Vietnam Nationalist Party. Formed in 1927, it was composed of the wealthy and middle class sections of the population. In 1929 the Vietnamese soldiers mutinied,



Ho Chi Minh

and there was a failed attempt to assassinate the French Governor-General. This was followed by a large scale peasant revolt led by the Communists. The revolt was crushed followed by what is called “White Terror.” Thousands of rebels were killed.

After the White Terror, Ho Chi Minh left for Moscow and spent the 1930s in Moscow and China. When France was defeated by Germany in 1940, Ho Chi Minh and his lieutenants used this turn of events to advance the Vietnamese cause. Crossing over the border into Vietnam in January 1941, they organized the League for the Independence of Vietnam, or Viet Minh. This gave renewed emphasis to a distinct Vietnamese nationalism.

(b) Decolonisation in India

Dyarchy in Provinces

The decolonization process started in India from the beginning of the twentieth century with the launch of the Swadeshi Movement in 1905. The outbreak of the First World War brought about rapid political as well as economic changes. In 1919, the Government of India Act introduced Dyarchy that provided for elected provincial assemblies as well as for Indian ministers to hold certain portfolios under Transferred Subjects. The Montague declaration read: ‘Increasing association of Indians in every branch of the administration and the gradual development of self-government in India as an integral part of the British Empire. This measure of the British government was “to buy the political peace needed to expand the tax base.” The Indian National Congress rejected Dyarchy and decided to boycott the legislature.

Lack of Measures to Industrialise India

Despite the discriminating protection given to certain select industries such as sugar, cement, and chemicals, there was no change in the colonial economic policy. Incentives were provided for the British iron and steel industry by guaranteeing purchasing contracts. But in the case of indigenous

Ho Chi Minh (1890-1969) was born in Tongking. When Ho Chi Minh was twenty one, he went to Europe. After working as a cook in a London hotel, he went to Paris. In the Paris peace conference, he lobbied for the independence for Vietnam. His articles in newspapers and especially the pamphlet, *French Colonialism on Trial*, made him well known as a Vietnam nationalist. In 1921 he became a founder-member of the French Communist party. Two years later he went to Moscow and learnt revolutionary techniques then. In 1925, he founded the Revolutionary Youth Movement. After the peasant revolt he led was crushed in 1930, he went to Moscow again. Inspired by Mao Tse Tung, he returned to Indo-China after the Japanese invaded it organized the communists and carried on his anti-colonial struggle. He also played an inspirational role leading the war against the USA.

industries, support was only in the form of providing “technical advice and education, and the establishment of pioneer factories in new industries”. However, even this policy was soon abandoned as many British enterprises were opposed to this .

India in the days of Great Depression

The ‘Great Depression’ of 1929 had a disastrous impact on British trade and business. Foreign investment declined, particularly in the heavy industry sector like railway building. For the colonial government the expansion of trade was the only ideal mode of economy, as it guaranteed easy access to indirect tax revenue (for example: custom duties) and foreign currency. Britain transmitted the effects of Depression to its colonies. Bilateral trade treaties between Britain and the member states of the British Empire were signed at an economic summit in Ottawa in 1932, in which the participants (including India) agreed to give preference to imperial (British) over non-imperial goods.



Delegates in Ottawa Conference 1932

India was forced to adhere to the policy of balancing the budget. The government of British India also raised revenue tariffs mainly to gain foreign currency. Britain’s need for gold in the crisis years was met from the export of gold from India. By overvaluing Indian currency, the British made imports cheaper. The currency exchange policy fuelled tensions between the colonial government and its subjects, and intensified the political agitation against British rule.

Impact of Depression on Indian Agriculture

The ‘Great Depression’ also dealt a death blow to Indian agriculture and the indigenous manufacturing sector. The value of farm produce, declined by half while the land rent to be paid by the peasant remained unchanged. In terms of prices of agricultural commodities, the obligation of the farmers to the state doubled. Farmers and Indian manufacturers therefore had to sell their gold and silver reserves to subsist. The great fall in prices prompted Indian nationalists to demand protection for the internal economy. The 1930s saw the emergence of the Indian National Congress as a militant mass movement. The call given by the Congress for a Civil Disobedience Movement, evoked tremendous response in rural India. Left radicalism was also very much in evidence.



Gandhi’s Dandi Yatra

Government of India Act, 1935

The British had to appease the Indian nationalists and the outcome was the passage of the Government of India Act, 1935. This provided for greater power to the local governments and the introduction of direct elections. In the 1937 elections the Congress won a resounding victory in most of the provinces. However the decision of Britain to involve India in the Second World War, without consulting the popular Congress ministries, forced the latter to resign from office.

2.4 Anti-Colonial Movements in Africa

Colonisation of Africa

The African coastline had been explored in the sixteenth century and a few European settlements had come about. But the interior of Africa was unknown to the outside world until the last quarter of nineteenth century. European colonisation began after about 1875. The Berlin Colonial Conference of 1884–85 resolved that Africa should be divided into spheres of influence of various colonial powers. The war between the British and Boers in South Africa, however, was in defiance of this resolution.

Boer Wars



Boer War

The relations between the two British colonies of Natal and Cape Colony and the two independent Boer states of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State had long been unfriendly. The discovery of gold in Transvaal, in 1886, led to large numbers of British miners settling in and around Johannesburg. The Boers hated these people whom they referred to as Uitlanders (foreigners). The Boers taxed them heavily apart from denying political rights. So the question was whether the British or the Boers were to be supreme in South Africa. Fearing attacks from the British, the Boers armed themselves and decided to attack.

The Boer War lasted for three years, 1899-1902. Initially, the Boers were successful. But by the first half of 1900, the Boer army was defeated. Pretoria was occupied. The Boers took to guerrilla fighting. This continued for about two years. In retaliation the British destroyed farms and crops. They set up internment camps for Boer women and children. Shortage of food, medical and sanitary facilities caused the death of 26,000 people. The British annexed the two Boer states. Boers were however promised self-government in due course. In 1907 full responsible government was given to the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. The four states formed into a union and the South Africa Act passed by the British parliament in 1909 provided for a Union Parliament at Cape Town. The Union of South Africa came into being in May 1910.

The descendents of original Dutch settlers of South Africa, also known as Afrikaners, were called Boers. Their language is Afrikaans.

Nationalist Politics in South Africa

There were two main political parties: the Unionist Party which was mainly British, and the South Africa Party which had largely Afrikaners (Boers). The first Prime Minister, Botha belonged to the South Africa Party ruled in cooperation with the British. But a militant section of the South Africa Party formed the National Party under Herzog. Herzog wanted a twin policy of supremacy of Whites over Blacks and Afrikaners over British. In the 1920 elections the National Party gained forty-four seats. The South Africa Party, now led by Smuts, secured forty-one seats. At this juncture the British-dominated Unionist Party merged with the South Africa Party. This gave Smuts a majority over the militant Afrikaner-controlled National Party.

Racist Policy against the Blacks

The Afrikaners pursued a harsher, racist policy towards the blacks and the minority Indians. In 1923 an Act was passed to confine the native residents to certain



Smuts

parts of towns. Already an Act of 1913 had segregated black and white farmers, which made it impossible for the blacks to acquire land in most parts of the country. The 1924 elections were won by the National Party with the support of the Labour movement, composed mainly of white miners. The Act passed in 1924 prevented blacks from striking work and from joining trade unions. In the Cape Province the voting right to blacks was abolished. Native Blacks suffered in all spheres: social, economic and politics.

Dominion Status for South Africa

South Africa had gained Dominion Status, and thus had full control over foreign policy. The world economic depression brought unemployment and bankruptcy. Labour withdrew its support given to the National Party. Smuts believed that a coalition government was required to solve the country's economic problems. Therefore the South Africa Party and the National

Dominion Status: Prior to 1939, each of the later day British Commonwealth countries such as Canada, New Zealand, the Union of South Africa, Ireland (Eire), were accorded dominion status. The Imperial Conference of 1926 described Great Britain and the dominions as 'autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown'.

Apartheid in South Africa

Apartheid, which means separateness, became the racial policy of the Nationalist Party in 1947. From 1950 onwards a series of laws came to be enforced. The whole country was divided into separate areas for the different races. Marriage between white and non-white was forbidden. Nearly all schools were brought under government control so that education different from that of the Whites could be implemented for Africans. University education was also segregated. Apartheid is based on the belief that the political equality of White and Black in South Africa would mean Black rule. Since this would imperil the European interests, it was decided to keep the Africans in permanent subjection through force. Verwoerd, who was prime minister of South Africa from 1958 to 1966 was the brain behind the apartheid policy. The African National Congress (ANC) founded in 1912 fought the practice of racism. Repression was let loose against the leaders of the Congress. The ANC was banned and its leader Nelson Mandela was put behind bars. Mounting pressure at the global level helped to end the racist regime in South Africa. In 1990 the ban on ANC was lifted and Mandela freed after 27 years. In the elections held subsequently the Africans were allowed to vote and ANC won the election and Mandela became the first black president of South Africa. Even though apartheid was dismantled the Whites completely dominate the economic sphere.



Practice of Apartheid



Nelson Mandela

Party united in 1934 to form the United South Africa National Party or United Party for short. In spite of misunderstandings and disagreements, the Smuts–Herzog alliance lasted until 1939.

South Africa during World War and in its Aftermath

When the World War II broke out, the United Party split on the issue of South African support for Britain in the war against Germany. Smuts opposed Nazism and wanted South Africa to help Britain. Herzog was sympathetic towards Hitler, and favoured a policy of neutrality. The Parliament, however, decided in favour of war, and Herzog resigned. Smuts continued to function as the Prime Minister until 1948, With the passing away of Herzog, many in the Party led by him joined the Nationalists. The 1948 election gave the Reunified National Party a majority over the truncated United Party.

2.5 Political Developments in South America

Mayas and Aztecs

Before the European discovery of America three centres of civilisations existed there in Mexico in Central America and in Peru in South America. The Maya, the Inca and the Aztec Civilizations were highly advanced. There were several states in each of these areas of civilisation. Well organised and strong governments existed. Around the eleventh century, large cities formed into a league of Mayapan (centre of Maya civilisation of Native Americans American Indians). For over hundred years the League of Mayapan lasted. Though Mayapan was destroyed towards the close of twelfth century, other cities continued. Aztecs from Mexico conquered the Maya country in the fourteenth century and founded their capital city of Tenochtitlan. For nearly two hundred years the Aztecs ruled their empire.

European Colonisation and its Impact



Latin America

In the sixteenth century (around 1519) when the Aztecs were at the height of their power, the whole empire collapsed before a handful of adventurers led by a Spaniard named Hernan Cortes. Mexican civilisation collapsed. With it the great city of Tenochtitlan also perished. This is one of the world's worst genocides. The other famous Conquistador (conqueror) was also a Spaniard by name Francisco Pizarro. who led the conquest of the Incan Empire. Later the Spaniards made Peru a part of their dominions.

The Aztecs were a military nation. They had military colonies and garrisons, and a network of military roads. There was outward security and peace in the empire, but people were ruthlessly oppressed and exploited.

By the late 18th century, demand for political freedom, administrative autonomy and economic self-determination was articulated throughout Latin America. There were bloody conflicts between Haitian slaves, colonists, the armies of the British and the French colonizers. These struggles led by Toussaint L'Ouverture during 1791-1804 ended in the Haitian people's independence from the colonial control of France. Haiti thus became the first Caribbean country to throw off slavery and French colonial control.



Hernan Cortes conquering Mexico



Pizarro

Impact of Napoleonic Invasion of Spain and Portugal



Simon Bolivar-
El Libertador

Pedro I

The American and French Revolutions provided inspiration to the Latin Americans. The Napoleonic invasion of Spain and Portugal in 1808 quickened the process of liberation Struggle in South America. Already the spirit of independence was growing under the leadership of Simon Bolivar, called El Libertador, the liberator. In the case of Brazil, the Portuguese royal family in the context of conquest of Portugal by Napoleon fled from Lisbon and thereby assisted the transition of Brazil from colony to independent nation. Pedro

I renouncing the claim to the Portuguese throne declared independence of Brazil.

The Monroe Doctrine

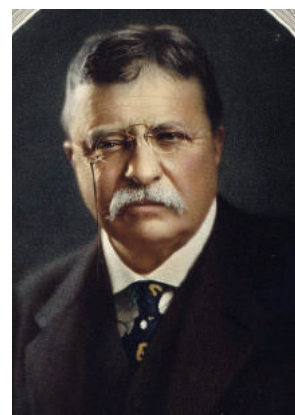
The fight for independence intensified when Napoleon fell in 1815. Some of the European kings wanted to help the king of Spain to crush the revolutionaries in the South American colonies. But Monroe, the President of the USA, came up with his famous Monroe doctrine, which declared that if Europeans interfered anywhere in America, north or south, it would amount to waging a war against the United States. This threat frightened the European powers. By 1830 the whole of South America was free from European domination. Thus the U.S. protected the South American republics from Europe; but there was no one to protect them from the Protector, the United States.

Disunity among Latin American Nationalists

Latin American nationalists fought not only Spain and Portugal but also each other. In 1821 Central America seceded from Mexico. Later (1839) Central America itself split into five republics (Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua). Uruguay split from Brazil in 1828. In 1830 Venezuela and Ecuador seceded from Gran Columbia, the republic created by Bolivar.

US Imperial Interests

At the dawn of the twentieth century the United States had occupied Cuba and Puerto Rico, after defeating the Spanish in 1898. From 1898 to 1902 Cuba was under US military rule. When the Americans finally left they retained a naval station in



Theodore Roosevelt



Cuba. The US also retained its right to intervene in Cuban internal affairs. President Theodore Roosevelt's attitude to Latin American countries was summed up in the words: 'Speak softly and carry a big stick.' The Monroe Doctrine had barred European interference in the affairs of the American continent. Roosevelt made an important amendment to the doctrine in 1904. It authorised US intervention in Latin America 'in order to maintain order.' After effecting this amendment, the US became the dominant influence not only politically but also in economics.

Emergence of Middle Class and Working Class

The independence movement facilitated transfer of political authority. But it engendered no social or economic change. With the masses excluded from the decision-making process, politics became the preserve of oligarchic families and military cliques. From the middle of the nineteenth century, oligarchic republics based on alliances of regional elites began to operate. Brazil remained an exception, until the monarch fell in 1889. With political stability and economic opportunity the country received large numbers of migrants from southern Europe. Economic growth, urbanization and industrial growth in countries like Argentina, Chile, Brazil and Mexico helped consolidate the hold of the middle class and the emergence of militant working class organisations. At the same time American power and wealth came to dominate Central and South America.

Great Depression in South America

The situation created by the Great Depression made it impossible for oligarchic regimes to accommodate the rising expectations of several assertive groups. In Mexico, there was violent social protest involving dissatisfied segments of the oligarchy, middle-class intellectuals, and peasant communities. Elsewhere electoral reform enabled newer social groups to obtain political power through the ballot box.

Latin America protested American intervention and disliked their "dollar imperialism". The opposition to political intervention produced a change in US policy after 1933. Franklin Roosevelt in his "Good Neighbour" policy agreed that the US would not intervene in the internal affairs of any state, and would give economic and technical assistance to Latin America.

Dollar Imperialism, the term used to describe the policy of the USA in maintaining and dominating over distant lands through economic aid.

SUMMARY

- Intensification of anti-colonial struggles commenced from the end of the First World War
- The harsh decisions in the Paris Peace Conference against the defeated countries destabilised the ruling regimes and created a climate for the rise of fascism especially in Italy and Germany.
- The economic slump originating in the US in 1929 and subsequently affecting all capitalist countries in the world resulted in changes in polity and society.
- Anti-colonial struggles gained strength despite repressive measures in French Indo-China.
- Decolonisation process was quickened during the inter-war period in India.
- Foundation and consolidation of European rule in Africa after the Berlin Colonial Conference of 1884-85.
- British subdued Afrikaners and set up a union of South Africa, which was racist in nature.
- The Munroe Doctrine prevented colonisation of Latin American countries by European powers and thereby ensured early sovereign status to them. Later this was regarded by Latin Americans as a cover for American intervention and exploitation of the resources of their countries.

A-Z GLOSSARY

solidarity	a bond of unity, support for a common cause	ஒற்றுமை உணர்வு, பொதுக்காரியத்திற்கான ஆதரவு
slump	a sudden severe or prolonged fall in the price	விலைவீழ்ச்சி, சரிவு
bankruptcy	insolvency, financial ruin	திவால், கடன் தீர்க்க முடியா நிலை
devaluation	a decrease in the value of a country's currency	பணமதிப்புக் குறைதல்
inflation	a general increase in prices and fall in the purchasing power of money	பணவீக்கம்
intimidation	threat, the act of making fearful	மிரட்டல், அச்சுறுத்தல்
bolstered	strengthened	வலுப்படுத்தினர்
demoralized	having lost confidence or hope, disheartened	மனத்தளர்ச்சி அடைதல், நம்பிக்கை இழத்தல்
manipulate	control or influence a person or situation cleverly, unfairly to achieve a specific purpose	கெட்டிக்காரத்தனமாய் அல்லது சூழ்ச்சியாய் கையாளு
annulling	declaring invalid or null and void	செல்லாதாக்கல், ரத்துசெய்தல்
tremendous	huge, extremely large	பிரம்மாண்டமான
articulate	expressing an idea or feeling clearly	தெளிவாகப் பேசுதல்
oligarchy	a small group of people having control of a country	குழு ஆட்சி



EXERCISE

I. Choose the correct answer



- With whom of the following was the Lateran Treaty signed by Italy?
 - Germany
 - Russia
 - Pope
 - Spain
- With whose conquest did the Mexican civilization collapse?
 - Hernan Cortes
 - Francisco Pizarro
 - Toussaint Louverture
 - Pedro I
- Who made Peru as part of their dominions?
 - English
 - Spaniards
 - Russians
 - French
- Which President of the USA pursued "Good Neighbour" policy towards Latin America?
 - Roosevelt
 - Truman
 - Woodrow Wilson
 - Eisenhower
- Which part of the world disliked dollar imperialism?
 - Europe
 - Latin America
 - India
 - China

- Who was the brain behind the apartheid policy in South Africa?
 - Verwoerd
 - Smut
 - Herzog
 - Botha
- Which quickened the process of liberation in South America?
 - Support of US
 - Napoleonic Invasion
 - Simon Bolivar's involvement
 - French Revolution
- Name the President who made amendment to Munro doctrine to justify American intervention in the affairs of Latin America?
 - Theodore Roosevelt
 - Truman
 - Eisenhower
 - Woodrow Wilson

II. Fill in the blanks

- The founder of the Social Democratic Party was _____.
- The Nazi Party's propaganda was led by _____.
- The Vietnam Nationalist Party was formed in _____.
- The Secret State Police in Nazi Germany was known as _____.
- The Union of South Africa came into being in May _____.
- The ANC leader Nelson Mandela was put behind the bars for _____ years.

7. _____ were a military nation.
8. Boers were also known as _____.

III. Choose the correct statement

1. i) During World War I the primary task of Italy was to keep the Austrians occupied on the Southern Front
 ii) Germany took to Fascism much later than Italy.
 iii) The first huge market crash in the US occurred on 24 October 1929.
 iv) The ban on African National Congress was lifted in 1966.
 a) i) and ii) are correct
 b) iii) is correct
 c) iii) and iv) are correct
 d) i), ii) and iii) are correct
2. **Assertion:** A new wave of economic nationalism which expressed itself in protectionism affected the world trade.
Reason: This was because the USA was not willing to provide economic aid to the debtor countries.
 a) Both A and R are correct
 b) A is right but R is not the correct explanation
 c) Both A and R are wrong
 d) R is right but it has no relevance to A
3. **Assertion:** The Berlin Colonial Conference of 1884–85 had resolved that Africa should be divided into spheres of influence of various colonial powers.
Reason: The war between the British and Boers in South Africa, however, was in defiance of this resolution.
 a) Both A and R are right
 b) A is right but R is not the right reason
 c) Both A and R are wrong
 d) A is wrong and R has no relevance to A

IV. Match the Following

1. Transvaal - Germany
2. Tongking - Hitler
3. Hindenburg - Italy
4. Third Reich - gold
5. Matteotti - guerilla activities

V Answer briefly

1. What do you know of the White Terror in Indo-China?
2. Discuss the importance of Ottawa Economic Summit.
3. Explain the Monroe Doctrine.
4. What was the result of Mussolini's march on Rome?
5. Point out the essence of the Berlin Colonial Conference, 1884-85.
6. How did Great Depression impact on the Indian agriculture?
7. Explain the reason for the Smuts–Herzog alliance
8. Define “Dollar Imperialism.”

VI. Answer the questions given under each caption

1. Anti-Colonial Struggle in Indo-China
 a) Define the concept of decolonisation
 b) What were the three States that formed Indo-China
 c) How did Communist ideas help in developing the spirit of anti-colonialism.
 d) Which was the mainstream political party in Indo-China?
2. Ho Chi Minh
 a) Where was Ho Chi Minh born?
 b) How did Ho Chi Minh become a popular Vietnam Nationalist?
 c) What do you know of Ho Chi Minh's Revolutionary Youth Movement?
 d) How was the League for Independence called in Indo-China?
3. Political developments in South America?
 a) By which year did the whole of South America become free from European domination?
 b) How many republics came into being from the Central America?
 c) In which year was Cuba occupied by the USA?
 d) What made oligarchic regimes unpopular in South America

VII. Answer in detail

1. Trace the circumstances that led to the rise of Hitler in Germany.



2. Attempt a narrative account of how the process of decolonization happened in India during the inter-war period (1919-39).
3. Describe the rise and growth of nationalist politics in South Africa.

VIII. Activity

1. Each student may be asked to write an assignment on how each sector and each section of population in the USA came to be affected by the Stock Market Crash in 1929.
2. A group project work on Vietnam War is desirable. An album or pictures, portraying the air attacks of the US on Vietnam and the brave resistance put up by the Vietnamese may be prepared.



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Timeline

- 1922 - Mussolini's March on Rome
- 1927 - Formation of Vietnam Nationalist Party
- 1929 - The Great Depression
- 1933 - Hitler became the Chancellor of Germany
- 1935 - Mussolini invaded Ethiopia



Unit - 3

World War II



Learning Objectives

- To acquaint ourselves about the political and economic developments after World War I which ultimately led to World War II
- To understand the course of the War, in general; in particular, to learn the main events which were turning points in the War
- To know the effects of World War II
 - Rise of the United States and the USSR as the two superpowers
 - Beginning of the age of nuclear weapons and high defence spending
 - Establishment of international agencies to promote peace and development in all countries
- To understand the “holocaust”, and the mass killing of Jews in Nazi Germany leading to the creation of the state of Israel as the homeland of Jews
- To acquire knowledge about the international organisations established after the War to create a new international order:
 - United Nations and the associated international organisations.
 - World Bank and its agencies.
 - International Monetary Fund and its objectives.
- To understand the “welfare state”; welfare states of Western Europe after World War II.



Introduction

The first half of the twentieth century witnessed two wars which devastated the world. World War I was fought from 1914 to 1918 and World War II began in 1939 and ended in 1945. While the world at large had experienced many wars, these two wars are referred to as “World” wars because of the extended areas of the conflict and the very high death toll of civilians as well as armed combatants. Both wars were fought on several fronts across Europe, Asia and Africa.

The total number of deaths in World War I is estimated to be 20 million (of whom 9.7 million were soldiers), and 21 million wounded. In World War II, the total death toll was 24 million military personnel and nearly 50 million civilians. In both wars, the combined forces of Great Britain, France, Russia and the United States fought against a war alliance led by Germany. Germany’s allies were Italy and Japan in World War II.

In addition to the terrible human cost, the financial cost of the War II was

also huge. It was five times higher than the figure for World War I. World War II also witnessed unprecedented levels of brutality against non-combatant civilian populations, gross violation of international protocols on the treatment of prisoners of war, many of whom were tortured and killed. Innumerable atrocities were committed against the people living in conquered regions.

The end of World War II signalled a change in the world order and political configurations among the major powers. In addition, an era of large-scale social and economic change across the world was ushered in.

3.1 Causes, Course and Effects of World War II

(a) Causes

The devastation caused by World War I was of such magnitude that it was referred to as The Great War, or The War to End All Wars. The belligerent nations, especially the Allies, had no desire for a second prolonged conflict, and this was the main driving force behind their actions after the end of World War I. The immediate and primary cause of World War II was the aggressive military offensive undertaken by a resurgent Germany and a fast developing Japan. However, the root causes of the War are more complex. Let us try to understand them in detail.

Germany and Treaty of Versailles, 1919

The Treaty of Versailles ending World War I was signed in June 1919. Among the many clauses of the Treaty, three in particular caused great resentment among the Germans. (i) Germany was forced to give up territories to the west, north and east of the German border; (ii) Germany had to disarm and was allowed to retain only a very restricted armed force (army, navy and air force); (iii) as reparations for the War, Germany was expected to pay for the military and civilian cost of the War to the Allied nations. War reparations

were calculated at \$10 billion dollars by Britain, and \$15 billion dollars by the United States. However, France and Belgium were able to insist on war reparations of \$33 billion dollars, which Germany protested saying it was beyond its capacity to pay. The Germans offered to pay 100 billion gold marks (approximately \$ 25 billion).

Failure of League of Nations

The Treaty also set up the League of Nations, as we have seen in Lesson 1, on the initiative of President Woodrow Wilson of the United States. The League was expected to mediate between countries and take action against countries which indulged in military aggression. However, the United States was not interested in playing a global role or any role in European politics. The popular mood favoured the traditional isolationist approach, and therefore the United States did not become a member of the League. The other Allied nations were also determined to maintain a non-interventionist attitude and, in consequence, the League remained an ineffectual international body.

Post-War Crisis and Germany

As mentioned above the three main clauses of the Treaty of Versailles, especially the imposition of penal reparations caused great discontent in Germany. The interwar period was a time of severe economic downturn in Western Europe as well as the United States. Britain was facing massive unemployment and its economy was nearly crippled by the General Strike of 1926. The United States was faced with the Great Depression after 1929. The problems which many countries faced in the post-World War I decades led to the rise of extreme right wing dictatorships in Italy (Mussolini), Germany (Hitler) and Spain (Franco).

Germany experienced both high unemployment and severe inflation after the War, and its currency became practically worthless. There are several pictures of the 1920s when ordinary people had to carry

money in wheelbarrows to buy bread. This was blamed on the war reparations which Germany was forced to pay, though in the final analysis, the demands for war reparations were moderated over several rounds of negotiations.



Huge worthless money for bread

The Rise of Adolf Hitler

Adolf Hitler was able to exploit the general discontent among the Germans. Gifted with great oratorical skills, he was able to sway the people by his impassioned speeches, promising a return to the glorious military past of Germany. He founded the National Socialist party, generally known as "the Nazis". The fundamental platform on which Hitler built his support was the notion of the racial superiority of the Germans as a pure, 'Aryan' race and a deep-seated hatred of the Jews. Hitler came to power in 1933 and ruled Germany till 1945.

In direct contravention of the clauses of the Treaty of Versailles, Hitler began to re-arm Germany. The recruitment for the armed forces and the manufacture of armaments and machinery for the army, navy and air force with large amounts of government spending resulted in an economic revival and solved the problem of unemployment in Germany.

Italy's break with Britain and France in the wake of Mussolini's invasion of Ethiopia resulted in better relationship between Italy and Germany. In 1936, before Germany invaded the Rhineland, which was supposed to be a demilitarised zone, Rome - Berlin Axis had come into being. Later, with Japan joining this alliance, it became Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis. In 1938, Hitler invaded Austria and Czechoslovakia. Sudetenland in Czechoslovakia was German speaking, and

Hitler's claim was that the German speaking people should be united in to one nation.

Allies and Non-Intervention

There were also acts of aggression by Italy and Japan. Italy invaded Ethiopia in 1935 and Albania in 1939. Emperor Haile Selassie of Ethiopia appealed to the League of Nations, but got no help. In the East, Japan was pursuing its policy of military expansion. In 1931, Japan invaded Manchuria, and in 1937 it invaded China and seized Beijing. All these were ignored by the Allies and the League of Nations was unable to take any action.

In spite of all these manifestations of military activity by Germany, Italy and Japan, Britain and France continued to be non-interventionist. The mood in Britain was not in favour of starting another war. Prime Ministers Baldwin and Chamberlain did not feel justified in intervening in a region which was not officially in their sphere of interest. The United States was totally indifferent to the outside world, and was concerned with the revival of the economy after the Great Depression.

Munich Pact

A further factor was that the western powers and the Soviet Union distrusted each other. In 1938, Prime Minister Chamberlain concluded the Munich Pact with Germany, which was a shameful acceptance of Germany's invasion of Czechoslovakia to annex German-speaking Sudetenland. In 1939 the Soviet Union independently concluded a non-aggression pact with Germany. The continued passivity of the Allies and the reluctance to start building up their armies were also contributory causes of the extended scale of World War II.

Though Hitler gave an assurance in the Munich Pact that Germany would not attack any other country, this was broken immediately. In 1939 he invaded Czechoslovakia. Poland was attacked next, and this was the final act which resulted in

the declaration of war by Britain and France against Germany. In Britain, Prime Minister Chamberlain resigned in 1940 and Winston Churchill, who had always warned about Hitler and his military ambitions, became Prime Minister.



Munich Pact

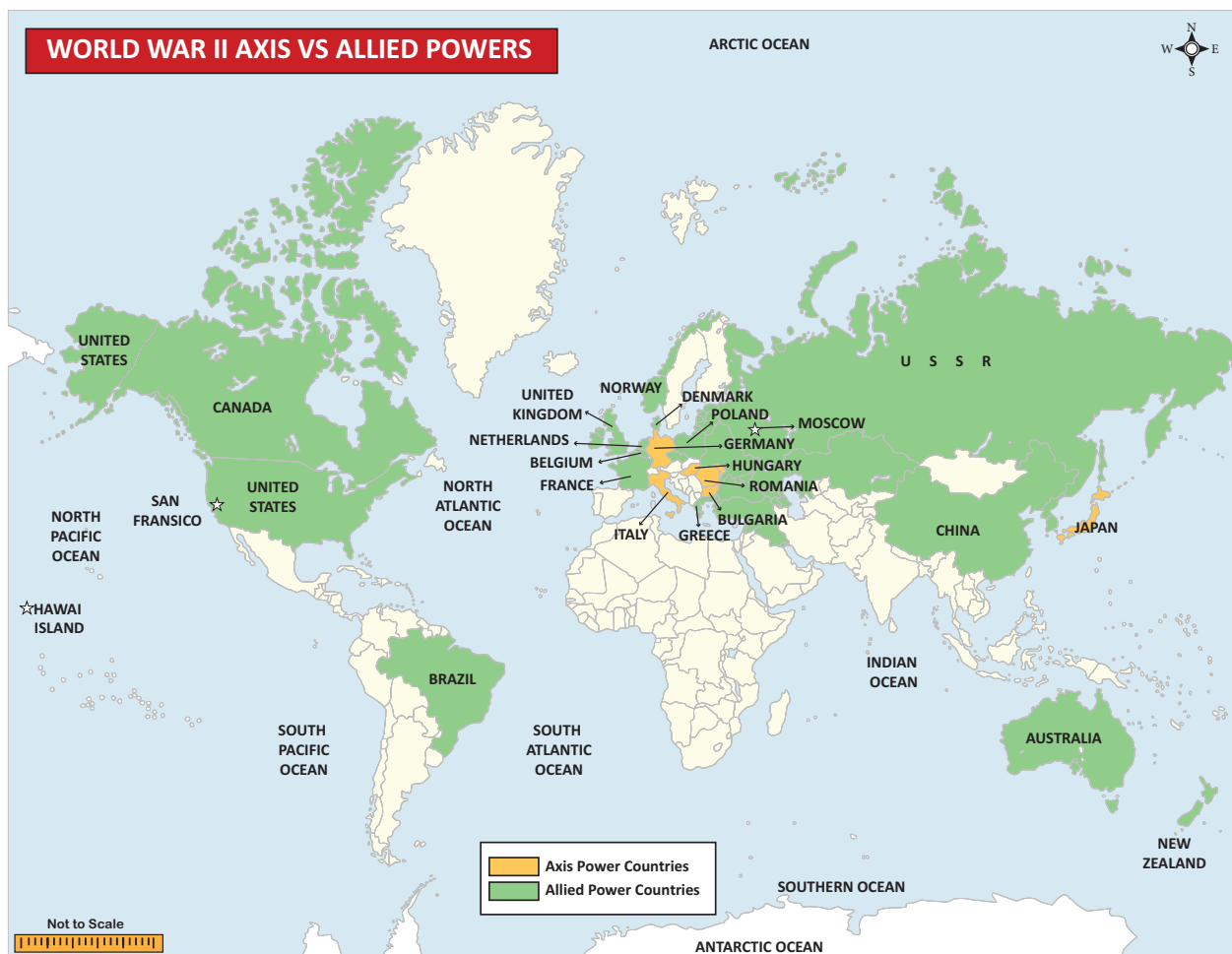
Europe, the war was fought by the Allies against Germany and Italy. In the Asia Pacific, the Allies fought Japan. The two theatres of war will be discussed separately. The war in Europe also extended to North Africa which had been occupied by Germany.

World War II was a modern war fought with heavy military equipment such as tanks, submarines, battleships, aircraft carriers, fighter planes and bomber planes. This involved a very large resource base, since all this equipment needed to be manufactured. There had to be raw materials, manufacturing capacity and technical inputs to improve the military hardware. This was an expensive and prolonged war of attrition. Almost every foot of territory was fought for step by step, so that the final capitulation of the Axis powers came more than a year after the Allies invaded mainland Europe in June 1944.

(b) Course of World War II

Nature of the War

World War II was fought on two distinct fronts - Europe and the Asia Pacific. In



Outbreak of War

Britain and France declared war on Germany in September 1939. In June 1940, Italy joined Germany, and in September 1940, Japan also joined the Axis powers.

There was little action immediately after the declaration of war. Britain had already begun to build up its military capabilities, and all young men were conscripted for military duty. The first years of the War were a time of spectacular successes of the Germany army which occupied Denmark and Norway and later France. By 1941, all of mainland Europe till the Russian frontier was under the Axis powers. The German army followed a tactic of 'lightning strike' (Blitzkrieg) to storm into various countries and overrun them.



Blitzkrieg

The British Royal Navy continued to be the most powerful among the European naval forces and ensured that a sea-borne invasion of Britain was not possible. However, Britain depended on large scale imports of food, raw materials and industrial goods by sea from its Empire and the US. To attack this, Germany developed a fleet of submarines which caused havoc, especially in the Atlantic Ocean area, by sinking a large number of civilian ships carrying supplies to Britain.



British Royal Navy

Important Events

Dunkirk – In May 1940 more than **300,000** British and French soldiers were forced back to the beaches in Dunkirk. Though they were under heavy fire, there was no all-out attack by the Germans and **338,000** men were rescued by the British by calling on all men who had boats or small ships which could be put to use. The French soldiers

formed the nucleus of the Free French army under General de Gaulle. Britain would have found it difficult to regroup if so many of her soldiers had been lost at Dunkirk.

Battle of Britain– By July 1940, it was feared that the Germans were planning to invade Britain. Hitler wanted to force Britain to accept his proposals for peace by a prolonged air-borne bombing campaign. The German air force began to attack specific targets, especially the ports, airfields and industrial installations. In September 1940, London was bombed mercilessly, an action known as The Blitz. By October 1940, night bombing raids on London and other industrial cities began.

This campaign failed because with the aid of a newly developed and top secret device 'radar' for detecting aircraft while still at a distance, the fighter planes of the Royal Air Force (Spitfires and Hurricanes) were able to inflict severe losses on the German bombers. The raids stopped after October 1940. Saluting the bravery of the Royal



Hurricanes -
Royal Air Force



Spitfires -
Royal Air Force

Air Force Churchill said in a speech, that "Never was so much owed by so many to so few". The Germans dropped their plans to invade Britain because of the failure of the air battle.

"We shall defend our island, whatever the cost may be. We shall fight on the beaches. We shall fight in the fields and in the streets. ... We shall never surrender." This inspirational speech by Winston Churchill in June 1940 boosted the morale of the British people when there were real fears of an invasion by Germany.

Lend Lease 1941–1945

President Roosevelt realized that the United States had to change its policy of isolation, but could not intervene directly in the War in Europe, because it was not politically feasible. So he started a programme of “Lend Lease” in March 1941. Arms, food, military equipment and other supplies were sent to Britain, disguised as a “loan”, which would be returned after use. This augmented the resources of Britain to a great extent. Between 1941 and 1945, the total aid under Lend Lease amounted to \$46.5 billion.

Invasion of Russia 1941–1942

In June 1941 the German army invaded Russia. The long-term objectives of this move were to seize prime land for settling Germans, to destroy the communist regime, and also exploit Russia’s natural resources, especially oil. The German strategy of lightning strikes was initially successful and the army penetrated 1000 miles into Russian territory very soon. The German army then marched on Moscow. But ultimately, the resistance by the Soviet army, and the fierce Russian winter defeated the German army.

Battle of Stalingrad (17 July 1942 to 2 February 1943)

In August 1942, the Germans attacked Stalingrad. Stretching about 30 miles (50 km) along the banks of the Volga



Battle of Stalingrad

River, Stalingrad was a large industrial city producing armaments and tractors. Capturing the city would cut Soviet transport links with southern Russia, and Stalingrad would then enable the invading Germans to have access to the oil fields of the Caucasus. In addition, seizing the city that bore the name of Soviet leader Stalin would serve as a great personal and propaganda victory for Hitler. German

war planners hoped to achieve that end with *Fall Blau* (“Operation Blue”). On June 28, 1942, operations began with significant German victories.

Russian people suffered not only from bad working and living conditions, but also from ill-treatment at German hands in the occupied areas. There were about 15 million civilian deaths during the war, and about 10 million members of the armed forces were killed. All together over one-tenth of Russia’s population died. Yet the people remained loyal to the government, despite Hitler’s hopes of an anti-Stalin revolution. They successfully defended the city of Stalingrad. It stopped the German advance into the Soviet Union and marked the turning of the tide of war in favour of the Allies. Russians consider it to be one of the greatest battles of their Great Patriotic War.

Battle of El Alamein 1942

In the early years of the War, German forces under General Rommel were remarkably successful in



Battle of El Alamein

occupying North Africa rapidly, leaving the British with only Egypt. The Allied forces under General Montgomery counter-attacked and defeated the German and Italian forces at El Alamein in North Africa. The German army was chased across the desert, out of North Africa. This provided the base for the Allied forces to invade Italy.

Surrender of Italy 1943

Mussolini had been thrown out and the new government of Italy surrendered to the Allies in 1943.



Surrender of Italy

However, the Germans set Mussolini up in a puppet regime in the north. Mussolini was killed in April 1945, by Italian partisans.



End of Hitler

The Allied forces under the command of General Eisenhower invaded Normandy in France. Slowly, the German army was forced back. But the Germans fought back and the War continued for nearly another year, and finally ended in May 1945. Hitler committed suicide in April 1945.

From 1944, the Russian army began to attack Germany from the East and captured much of Eastern Europe and Poland. In 1945, they occupied parts of Berlin, so that Germany was divided into two sections after the War.



Surrender of German Forces

War in the Asia-Pacific Region

Japan had entertained visions of a glorious empire, very much on the same lines as Hitler. The Japanese army invaded Manchuria in 1931. Though China appealed to the League of Nations, this act of aggression did not attract the attention of the United States or Britain. In 1937, Japan invaded China, and seized Beijing (Peking, as it was then known) which had traditionally been the capital of China. The region around Shanghai was also captured, and Nanjing (Nanking), the capital was captured at the end of the year. The Japanese army indulged in the biggest slaughter ever known in history in Nanjing. Civilians were killed en masse for sport, and all females – from children to old women – were raped, and many were tortured and killed after being raped. Guangzhou (Canton) and many other parts of China were overrun. The Chinese army, under Chiang Kai-shek retreated to the west to the hilly country from where they continued to fight the Japanese.

China appealed to the League of Nations, but this was in vain since the western powers were not interested in being involved in a region so far from their sphere of interest. The western nations, particularly Britain, also had an in-built bias, in that China was viewed as a morally decadent, worn-out, feudal society

while Japan was a modern nation with moral values similar to western ideas.



Pearl Harbour attack

Pearl Harbour 1941

On December 1941, Japan attacked American naval installations in Pearl Harbour, Hawaii, without warning. The idea was to cripple America's Pacific fleet so that Japan would not face any opposition in its offensive against South-east Asian countries. Many battleships and numerous fighter planes were destroyed. The United States declared war on Japan, with Britain and China also joining in. This brought together both the Asia Pacific and the European war into one common cause. Most importantly, it brought the United States with its enormous resources into the war as a part of the Allies.

Japanese Aggression in South-east Asia

The Japanese had spectacular success in their plan to extend their empire throughout South-east Asia. Guam, the Philippines, Hong Kong, Singapore, Malaya, the Dutch East Indies (Indonesia) and Burma, all fell to the Japanese. The Allies faced many reverses in the Pacific region because of their inadequate preparation. The colonial rulers, especially the British, withdrew from their territories, leaving the local people to face the atrocities of the Japanese. Burma, Malaya, Singapore and the Dutch East Indies also had a considerable population of Indians and Chinese. Many Indians walked all the way from Burma to the Indian border, facing many hardships. Many died of disease and exhaustion. Those who remained suffered under the Japanese.

Battle of Midway and Battle of Guadalcanal 1942

The US navy defeated the Japanese navy in the Battle of Midway, which turned the tide



in favour of the Allies. The Battle of Guadalcanal in the Solomon Islands was a combined offensive involving the army and the navy, and lasted for several months. Both were crushing defeats for the Japanese.



Battle of Guadalcanal

After this, the American forces were able to re-take the Philippines. Gradually the Japanese were thrown out of most of their conquered territories. In 1944, the combined British and Indian armies were able to push back the Japanese who attempted to invade the north-east of India. Then, along with the Chinese, they pushed the Japanese out of Burma, and liberated Malaya and Singapore.

Hiroshima and Nagasaki, August 1945

As a top secret project, using the latest scientific advances, the US developed an atomic bomb immensely more powerful than conventional explosives. The Japanese generals refused to surrender and finally the US dropped an atomic bomb on Hiroshima. As the Japanese still refused to surrender, another atom bomb was dropped on Nagasaki. Japan ultimately announced surrender on



15 August 1945 and formally signed 2 September 1945 bringing an end to World War II.

The horrendous long-term effects on the local population of the radiation from the atomic bombs were not clearly understood at the time.

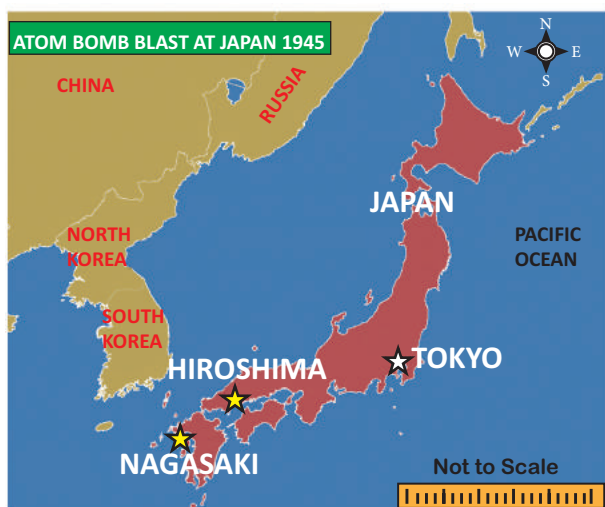
(c) Effects of the War

New geo-political power alignment: World War II changed the world in fundamental ways. The world was polarized into two main blocs led by superpowers, one led by the United States with a pronounced anti-Communist ideology, and the other by Soviet Russia. Europe was divided into two: Communist and non-Communist.

Nuclear proliferation: The United States and the Soviet Union entered into a race to have more nuclear powered weapons. They built a large stockpile of such weapons. Britain and France also developed their own nuclear weapons. Countries began to devote large amount of resources in developing more and more powerful weapons of great destructive power, and defence spending sky-rocketed in many countries.

International agencies: The mistakes of a weak and ineffectual League of Nations were not repeated. Many international agencies, in particular the United Nations, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund came into existence providing a forum for countries large and small.

In addition to these major changes, other important social and economic changes also took place in the post-War world. Colonial powers were forced to give independence to former colonies in a process of decolonization. India was the first to achieve independence. In subsequent years, these newly independent nations began to make their voices heard in the international arena. Women started entering the labour force in greater numbers. Societal notions of stable social relations (marriage,



family) changed as more and more women became economically independent.

3.2 Holocaust and Its Fallout

After Hitler came to power, the Jews were persecuted in many ways. They were deprived of their civil rights, their properties were confiscated and many were confined to ghettos. Eventually, the Nazis came up with the notion of the Final Solution, which was to exterminate the Jews completely. Jews in Germany and in all the countries overrun by the Nazis were rounded up and transported in cattle cars to concentration camps. Here they were subjected to inhuman living conditions, torture, horrible medical experiments supposedly in the name of science. Finally they were killed in gas chambers. Nearly six million European Jews were killed in these extermination camps. The killing continued till the end of the war, when the surviving inmates of different concentration camps were rescued by the invading Allied armies. Other ethnic groups, especially the Romani gypsies were also killed in the concentration camps.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights

In the aftermath of the Holocaust the UNO in its Charter, pledged to promote universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction to race, sex, language and religion. The UN efforts to protect human rights on a global basis resulted in the constitution of UN Commission on Human Rights. A committee constituted under its auspices was chaired by the widow of President Franklin Roosevelt. The members of the Commission included Charles Malik of Lebanon, P.C. Chang of Nationalist China, John Humphrey of Canada, and Rene Cassin of France. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was its important contribution. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights set forth fundamental human

The word 'holocaust' is used to describe the genocide of nearly six million Jews by the Germans during World War II. Annihilating the Jews was one of the main items on the political agenda of Hitler and the Nazis. Hitler was able to play on the anti-Jewish feelings (anti-Semitism) which were common in Germany and, in fact, throughout Europe. Jews were scattered all across Europe and many had become prominent in business, in performing arts and professional fields. Money-lending was a major business activity among Jews and this strengthened the prejudice against them. Shakespeare's play, *The Merchant of Venice* clearly depicts the dislike and distrust of Jews among the people. The character of Shylock is a stereotype. The movie, *Fiddler on the Roof*, is about the anti-Jewish pogrom in nineteenth century Russia when an entire village of Jews is forced to move out by an order of the Tsar.

rights in 30 articles. The UN adopted this historic Charter on 10 December 1948. This day (10 December) is observed globally as Human Rights Day. Provisions of some ninety national constitutions since 1948, according to the Franklin and Eleanor Roosevelt Institute in New York, can be traced to this Declaration.

Birth of Israel

A major outcome of the Holocaust was the creation of the state of Israel as a homeland for the Jews. While this was historically the original home of the Jews during Roman times, the Jews had dispersed across Europe, and the region was predominantly populated by Muslims by the twentieth century. Carving out a Jewish state in this region has created continuous tensions in west Asia. There is a continuous state of hostility between the Arab states and Israel. Israel has occupied large parts of Palestinian homelands. Israel derives vast support from the United States.

3.3 New International Order

By 1941 the United States and Britain began to give serious consideration to the need for international cooperation for achieving lasting peace among all nations. International economic and financial stability were also important objectives. All these would need international organizations with members of the various nations across the world working together for these common objectives. This ultimately resulted in the establishment of the United Nations, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, with many associated organizations which deal with basic issues of importance for all societies and countries.

International agencies had been established after World War I. But the League of Nations unfortunately proved to be ineffectual. The International Labour Office (ILO) located in Geneva in Switzerland, however, is still active and continues to work on issues relating to labour and employment.

United Nations

The first initiative for the United Nations came from the United States and Britain in 1941 when they issued a joint declaration known as the Atlantic Charter. This stated that after the destruction of Nazi tyranny, there would be peace for all countries so that all people could live their lives in freedom from fear and want. This Declaration of the United Nations was accepted by all the 26 countries which were fighting against the Axis powers (Germany, Italy and Japan) on New Year's Day, 1942. The Charter of the United Nations was signed on June 26, 1945 by 51 nations. India which was not an independent country then also was a signatory to the Charter. Now the United Nations has 193 member states and



Symbol of UN

each one - big or small - has an equal vote in the United Nations.

General Assembly and Security Council

The United Nations functions almost like any government, through its principal organs which are similar to the legislative, executive and judicial wings of a state. In the General Assembly is the body in which each member state is represented. It meets once a year and issues of interest and points of conflict are discussed in the Assembly. The Security Council has fifteen members. Five countries - the United States, Britain, France, Russia and China - are permanent members, and there are ten temporary members who are elected in rotation. These two bodies function like a legislature. Each of the permanent members has the right to veto any decision by the other members of the Security Council. This right has often been used to block major decisions, especially by the superpowers, the US and Russia. Major issues and conflicts are discussed in the Security Council.



UN Headquarters, New York

Administrative Structure

The executive wing of the United Nations is the UN Secretariat. It is headed by the Secretary General, who is elected by the General Assembly on the recommendation of the Security Council. The Secretary General, along with his cabinet and other officials, runs the United Nations. The International Court of Justice, headquartered at The Hague in Holland, is the judicial wing of the United Nations. The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), the fifth organ of the United Nations, is responsible for coordinating all the economic and social work of the United Nations. The regional Economic Commissions functioning for regional development across the various regions of the world (Asia Pacific, West Asia, Europe, Africa and Latin America) are organs of ECOSOC. They have been very

successful, and have been headed by eminent economists like Gunnar Myrdal.

Other Important Organs of the UN

Associated organizations deal with areas of critical interest to the world at large like food, health and education, and culture. These are: Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), World Health Organisation (WHO), UNESCO (UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation). There are also special organizations funded voluntarily by member countries. The two best known among them are UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund) which promotes child health and welfare across the world, and the UNDP (United Nations Development Programme), which focuses on development.

Activities of the UN

Over the decades, the United Nations has expanded its activities in response to the changing problems facing the world. Thus, in the 1960s, decolonization was an important issue. Human rights, the problems of refugees, climate change, gender equality are all now within the ambit of the activities of the United Nations. A special mention must be made of the UN Peacekeeping force, which has acted in many areas of conflict all over the world. The Indian army has been an important part of the peacekeeping force and has been deployed in many parts of the world.

"We, the peoples of the United Nations, determined to save succeeding generations from scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind, and to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women, and of nations large and small ...". - from The Preamble to the United Nations

World Bank

The World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, referred to as the "Bretton Woods Twins", were

both established in 1945 after the Bretton Woods Conference in 1944. Located in Washington D.C. in the United States, they have the same membership, since a country cannot be a member of the Bank without being a member of the Fund.



Bretton Woods Conference

The two main organs of the World Bank are the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and the International Development Agency (IDA). Together they are often referred to as the World Bank. The main responsibility of the IBRD in the initial years was to fund the reconstruction activities under the Marshall Plan in the European countries devastated by the war. The agenda later expanded to promote economic development in poorer countries and the Bank lends money to various countries for developmental projects. A further area of interest is poverty alleviation, especially in the rural areas of developing countries. The International Development Agency (IDA) also lends money to governments for developmental activities. These loans are "soft" loans, and are given at very low rates of interest for a period of 50 years. The International Finance Corporation (IFC) mainly functions with private enterprises in developing countries.

In recent years the Bank is actively promoting the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals which aim at improving living standards, removing illiteracy, empowering women and improving maternal and child health, improving the environment and eradicating AIDS.

International Monetary Fund (IMF)

The International Monetary Fund was primarily the brainchild of Harry Dexter White and John Maynard Keynes, the famous economist. It was formally organized in 1945 with 29 member countries. It now has a membership of 189 countries. Its primary objective is to ensure financial stability and development across the world. The main agenda is to promote international monetary cooperation, expansion of international trade and exchange stability. The Fund lends money from its resources to countries facing balance of payments problems (because they are unable to pay for their imports). It however imposes stringent conditions on the borrowing nations to tighten their budgets, practice fiscal prudence and reduce their expenditure. This is often unpopular, especially among the developing countries which may have to cut down on various programmes which provide subsidies to the people.

The objectives of the IMF are: “to foster global monetary cooperation, secure financial stability, facilitate international trade, promote high employment and sustainable economic growth and reduce poverty around the world.”

3.4 Post-War Welfare States in Europe

The term Welfare State refers to the concept that the government is responsible for the social and economic welfare of the people, thus expanding the role of the state beyond providing defence and maintaining law and order. The state now intervenes in many ways to protect the welfare of the people, for instance, through laws which protect workers in the workplace by prescribing the number of working hours, minimum wages and safe working conditions and so on. Throughout Europe, after the War, governments and the people did not want to return to the economic hardships and

unemployment which were experienced after World War I. A comprehensive programme of social welfare schemes in addition to ensuring that the people enjoyed civil and political rights were therefore adopted. While non-democratic governments (for example, Nazi Germany or communist states), also provide comprehensive welfare services, the term welfare state is used only for states where the people also enjoy civil and political liberties. All the countries in Western Europe are now welfare states, where the citizens are provided free health and social services. However presently welfare states are experiencing great stress due to aging populations immigration, etc.

In 1942, the Report commonly known as the Beveridge Report was published in the United Kingdom which proposed a series of measures which the government should adopt to provide citizens with adequate income, health care, education, housing and employment to overcome poverty and disease which were the major impediments to general welfare.

After the War, the Labour party was voted into power in Britain. It promised to undertake steps to look after the people “from the cradle to the grave”. Legislation was enacted to provide comprehensive free health coverage to the citizens through the National Health Service and monetary benefits like old age pensions and unemployment benefits, childcare services and family welfare services. These are in addition to universal, free school education to all children.

The benefits can either be achieved through cash transfers, like old age pensions and unemployment compensation, or through free services. In addition, these countries also try to minimize economic disparities through progressive taxation by taxing the higher income groups at relatively high rates.

SUMMARY

- The War lasted from 1939 till 1945 and was fought in almost every part of the world, in Europe, Africa and the Asia Pacific. The Allies, initially Britain and France, and subsequently the USSR (Russia) and the United States, fought against the Axis powers - Germany, Italy and Japan.
- Initially both the German army in Europe and Japan in the East were very successful. However, after the United States with its enormous resources also joined the Allies, both Germany and Japan were defeated after many prolonged fighting. The War ended in Europe in May 1945, but it ended in Asia only in August 1945, after the Americans dropped atom bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki.
- The post-War world saw the rise of two superpowers, namely the United States and the USSR. Both countries were in an arms race, especially to build their nuclear weapons.
- During the War, the Nazis resorted to killing the Jews in concentration camps. Nearly six million Jews were transported to these camps, tortured and killed.

GLOSSARY

devastation/ havoc	total destruction	பேரழிவு
belligerent	one eager to fight / aggressive	போர் நாட்டம்
resurgent	rising again	மீண்டெழுகிற
resentment	a feeling of deep and bitter anger	கருங்கோபம்
reparations	compensation exacted from a defeated nation by the victors	இழப்பீடுகள்
armaments	weapons	போர்த்தளவாடங்கள்
reluctance	unwillingness	தயக்கம்
conscripted	compulsory military service	கட்டாய இராணுவ சேவைக்கு அழைக்கப்பட்ட
morale	sense of confidence	மனத்திண்மை
slaughter	kill a large number of people indiscriminately	வதைத்துக் கொல்லுதல்
proliferation	a rapid increase	பல்கிப் பெருகுதல்
confiscated	seized / took away	பறிமுதல் செய்யப்பட்ட
ghettos	slums	குடிசைத்தொகுதி
veto	a vote that blocks a decision / negative vote	மறுப்பாணை / எதிர்வாக்கு
ambit	range	வரம்பு / எல்லை
scourge	eternal suffering	மீளாத்துயரம்
stringent	tough	கடுமையான



EXERCISE

I. Choose the correct answer

1. When did the Japanese formally sign of their surrender?
a) 2 September, 1945 b) 2 October, 1945
c) 15 August, 1945 d) 12 October, 1945



P9699S

2. Who initiated the formation of League of Nations?
a) Roosevelt b) Chamberlain
c) Woodrow Wilson d) Baldwin
3. Where was the Japanese Navy defeated by the US Navy?
a) Battle of Guadalcanal
b) Battle of Midway
c) Battle of Leningrad
d) Battle of El Alamein

4. Where did the US drop its first atomic bomb?
 - a) Kavashaki
 - b) Innoshima
 - c) Hiroshima
 - d) Nagasaki
5. Who were mainly persecuted by Hitler?
 - a) Russians
 - b) Arabs
 - c) Turks
 - d) Jews
6. Which Prime Minister of England who signed the Munich Pact with Germany?
 - a) Chamberlain
 - b) Winston Churchill
 - c) Lloyd George
 - d) Stanley Baldwin
7. When was the Charter of the UN signed?
 - a) June 26, 1942
 - b) June 26, 1945
 - c) January 1, 1942
 - d) January 1, 1945
8. Where is the headquarters of the International Court of Justice located?
 - a) New York
 - b) Chicago
 - c) London
 - d) The Hague

II Fill in the blanks

1. Hitler attacked----- which was a demilitarised zone.
2. The alliance between Italy, Germany and Japan is known as -----.
3. ----- started the Lend Lease programme.
4. Britain Prime Minister ----- resigned in 1940.
5. Saluting the bravery of the ----- ----- Churchill said that "Never was so much owed by so many to so few".
6. ----- is a device used to find out the enemy aircraft from a distance.
7. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights set forth fundamental human rights in -----articles.
8. After the World War II ----- was voted into power in Great Britain.

III. Choose the correct statement

1. i) Banking was a major business activity among Jews.
 ii) Hitler persecuted the Jews.
 iii) In the concentration camps Jews were killed.
 iv) The United Nations has currently 129 member countries in it.
 - a) i) and ii) are correct
 - b) i) and iii) are correct

- c) iii) and iv) are correct
- d) (i) is correct and ii), iii) and iv) are wrong

2. **Assertion:** President Roosevelt realised that the United States had to change its policy of isolation.

Reason: He started a programme of Lend Lease in 1941.

- a) Both A and R are correct
- b) A is right but R is not the correct reason
- c) Both A and R are wrong
- d) R is right but it has no relevance to A

IV. Match the Following

- | | | |
|----------------|---|------------------|
| 1. Blitzkrieg | - | Roosevelt |
| 2. Royal Navy | - | Stalingrad |
| 3. Lend Lease | - | Solomon Island |
| 4. Volga | - | Britain |
| 5. Guadalcanal | - | lightning strike |

V Answer the questions briefly

1. Mention the important clauses of the Treaty of Versailles relating to Germany.
2. Who were the three prominent dictators of the post World War I?
3. How did Hitler get the support from the people of Germany?
4. Describe the Pearl Harbour incident.
5. What do you know of Beveridge Report?.
6. Name the Bretton Woods Twins.
7. What are the objectives of IMF?

VI. Answer the questions given under each caption

1. Battle of Stalingrad
 - a) When did Germany attack Stalingrad?
 - b) What were the main manufactures of Stalingrad?
 - c) What was the name of the plan formulated by Hitler to attack Stalingrad?
 - d) What is the significance of the Battle of Stalingrad?
2. Japanese Aggression in South-east Asia
 - a) Name the South-east Asian countries which fell to the Japanese.
 - b) Account for the setback of Allies in the Pacific region?
 - c) What is the significance of Battle of Midway?
 - d) What happened to the Indians living in Burma?

3. General Assembly and Security Council
 - a) List the permanent member countries of the Security Council.
 - b) What is the Holocaust?
 - c) Who was the Chairperson of the UN Commission on Human Rights?
 - d) What is meant by veto?

VII. Answer in detail

1. Attempt an essay on the rise and fall of Adolf Hitler.
2. Analyse the effects of the World War II.
3. Assess the structure and the activities of the UN.

VIII. Students Activity

1. Group project involving students to prepare an album with pictures on different phases of the World War II.
2. A debate in the class on the success or failure of the UN in preserving World Peace.

3. Marking the Allies and Axis countries, as well as important battlefields of World War II in a world map.

IX. Map Work

Mark the following on the world map.

1. Axis Power Countries
2. Allied Power Countries
3. Hiroshima, Nagasaki, Hawai Island, Moscow, San Fransico



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3. *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, vol. 23 (1962 edition).
4. Chris Harman, *A People's History of the World* (Delhi: Orient Longman, 2007)

Timeline

- 1939 - Outbreak of World War II
- 1940 - Battle of Britain
- 1941 - Pearl Harbour incident
- 1942 - Battle of Stalingrad
- 1945 - End of World War II
- 1945 - Formation of UNO



ICT CORNER

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Click on 'map' to see the events happened in the location
- Select any year from the bottom time line (Ex.1939) and select the 'box' to learn more about the World War II events.



Unit - 4

The World After World War II



Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- Communist Revolution in China
- Cold War and the Non-Aligned Movement
- Korean War and the Cuban Missile Crisis
- Arab–Israeli Wars and Vietnam War
- European Economic Community and European Union
- Fall of Berlin Wall and the End of Cold War Era



Introduction

In the aftermath of Second World War a new era began. It was the beginning of the decline of European colonial empires and the independence of colonies in Asia and Africa. If the effects of World War I led to the communist revolution of Russia, the Second World War played a big part in the communist revolution in China. The emergence of the US and the USSR as super powers resulted in the division the world into two antagonistic blocs. A cold war (see the box item) situation triggered deadly conflicts in Korea, Cuba, Vietnam and West Asia.

Under the Marshall Plan for reconstruction of the war-ravaged Europe, the US won the trust of the great powers in Europe. Soviet Russia, by demonstrating solidarity with the liberation struggles of countries in Asia and Africa, earned the goodwill of the latter.

The Non-Aligned Movement played a limited role in containing the conflict between the two power blocs. In a bid to wriggle out

of US control, European countries started the European movement in the form of Council of Europe. This developed into the European Common Market and finally into what is today the European Union. The Cold War period ended with the fall of Berlin Wall.

4.1 Chinese Revolution

(a) China in the Pre-War Period

In its long history, Chinese civilization was more advanced than that of Europe. But by the end of the nineteenth century, its progress had halted. The Manchus, the ruling dynasty, had governed China since about 1650. The entire administration system was in the hands of a bureaucracy of scholar-officials called mandarins who came from the landed gentry. The mass of peasant population was poverty-stricken, and suffered from high rents, high taxes, and shortage of land. There was very little industry, though some railways and engineering works had been built.



Taiping Rebellion

Discontent with the political and economic system resulted in a number of peasant uprisings. The Taiping Rebellion (1850–64) was a major rebellion. The death toll was 20 million. At a time when the government was becoming unpopular and weak, European pressure on China to open its doors to foreign trade was also increasing. In the two opium wars of 1832 and 1848, China was defeated and was compelled to open its ports to western powers. The opening of China to western imperialism led to economic exploitation and the impoverishment of the Chinese people.

The European presence produced a profound hatred of foreigners. This combined with military defeat, led to more pressing demands for reforms from the Western-educated intellectuals. In 1898, the young Emperor, initiated a series of reforms known as the Hundred Days of Reform. But these reforms aroused tremendous opposition from the powerful conservatives and the Dowager-Empress Tzú Hsi. She imprisoned the Emperor and reversed the reforms.

Despite its incompetence and weakness, the Manchu government lasted until two years before the First World War.

(b) The Chinese Revolution 1911

The disintegration of the Manchu dynasty began with the death of the Dowager-Empress in 1908. The new emperor was two-years old and the provincial governors began to assert their independence. In October 1911 the local army mutinied and the revolt spread. Provincial governors removed the Manchu garrisons and proclaimed their independence. Already there were a few

middle-class leaders. Dr. Sun Yat-sen was one among them. On hearing the news of the rising in a newspaper in the United States Sun Yat-sen arrived in Shanghai and was immediately elected provisional president of the new Chinese Republic. But Yuan Shih-kai, who had earlier served as a minister in the Manchu administration, had full control of the modern army in the north. He succeeded in persuading those responsible for the ascension of the young Emperor to prevail on him to abdicate. A republic was also set up.



Dr. Sun Yat-sen
(1866–1925)

Born in a poor family near Canton, Dr. Sun Yat-sen, the father of modern china was educated in a mission school and became a Christian. He was then trained as a doctor of medicine in Hong Kong. Evincing interest in politics he took part in a rising against the Manchus in 1895. As the rising failed, Sun Yat-sen spent the next sixteen years in exile. He used this time to spread his nationalist ideas amongst Chinese students and others living overseas. In 1905 he founded in Tokyo the political party which in 1912 became the Kuomintang or the National People's Party. Dr. Sun Yat-sen's three principles were Nationalism, Democracy, and People's livelihood with Socialism as the ultimate object.

(c) Yuan Shih-kai and After

The unity of China under Yuan Shih-kai lasted for four years. During this time it was clear that Yuan was opposed to both democracy and republicanism. The Kuomintang Party was crushed. Yuan lost prestige in the eyes of nationalism, when he agreed to the demand of Japan to have economic control of Manchuria and Shantung. On his death in 1916 a new President was appointed for the

next twelve years but the government was central only in name. During this period of anarchy in China, Marxist ideas were developing in the north of China, parallel to Sun-Yat-sen's activities in the coastal cities between Shanghai and Canton.



Yuan Shih-kai



Mao Tse-tung
(1893–1976)

Mao was born in Hunan in south-east China. His father was a wealthy peasant, and a firm supporter of the Manchus.

Mao, who was very fond of reading, soon showed his ability and entered the Junior College at Changsha. This was the year (1911) when the Revolution had broken out in China. Mao joined the revolutionary army but soon left and enrolled in the Teachers' Training College in Changsha. He then moved to Peking and served as an assistant librarian in Peking University. In the following year Mao began his full-fledged political activities of Hunan and emerged as a staunch Communist.

(d) Communist Party of China

With the Revolution and the breakup of the old society, Confucian thought was generally side-lined and after the Russian Revolution of 1917, the ideas of Marx and Lenin became popular among intellectuals. In 1918 a Society for the Study of Marxism was formed in Peking University. Among the students who attended was **Mao Tse-tung**.

In the meantime, Sun Yat-sen, sent Chiang Kai-shek to Moscow to seek Russian support. The Russians in turn sent Michael Borodin to China, who reorganised the Kuomintang

as a centralised mass party and helped to build up a revolutionary army. The Whampoa Military Academy was founded near Canton, with the assistance of Russian officers. Its first director was Chiang Kai-shek. On the staff in charge of political activities was Chou En Lai, as an alliance had been formed between the Chinese Communist Party and the Kuomintang.



Chou En Lai

Kuomintang and Chiang Kai Shek

After the death of Sun Yat Sen the Kuomintang was organised on communist lines, but it did not adopt communist policies. The leader of the Kuomintang was Chiang Kai-shek. While the Communist Party was under Mao Tse Tung and Chou En Lai. As an avowed critic of Communists, Chiang removed all of them from important positions in the party. The communists increased their influence among the workers and peasants and obtained recruits for their army. The Kuomintang represented the interests of the landlords and capitalists.



Chiang Kai-shek started conquering China. Starting from Canton, by the end of 1925, he had captured Hanko. In early 1927 he successfully laid siege on Shanghai and Nanking. He removed all communists in the Kuomintang Party. In 1928 he was successful in capturing Peking. Once again there was a central government in China.

Mao as Organizer of Peasants

Mao had understood that the Kuomintang grip on the towns was very strong. So he concentrated his energies on organizing the peasantry. When the relationship between

Kuomintang and Communist Party broke a few hundred Communists led by Mao retreated into the wild mountains. Here they stayed for the next seven years. As the army of Mao was gradually growing, the Kuomintang was unable to penetrate the mountains. The campaign against the communists was distracted as Chiang Kai-shek had to deal with the constant threat from Japan and also the attacks from war lords.

The Long March 1934

As Chiang Kai-shek had built a circle of fortified posts around the communist positions, Mao wanted to move out of Hunan for safer territory. By 1933 Mao had gained full control of the Chinese Communist party. In 1934, the Communist army of about 100,000 set out on the Long March. This march has become legendary. The marchers were continually harassed by Kuomintang forces, by local war lords and by unfriendly tribesmen. Of the 100,000 who set out, only 20,000 finally reached northern Shensi late in 1935, after crossing nearly 6000 miles. They were soon joined by other communist armies. By 1937 Mao had become the leader of over 10 million people. Mao organised workers and peasants' councils in villages of Shensi and Kansu and established the base for the eventual Communist takeover of China.



Mao's Long March

Japanese Aggression

Japanese interest in taking control over Korea led to aggression against China which was weak and backward. Japan continued to occupy north Chinese provinces while

developing Manchuria as a military base. Mao believed that Chiang Kai-shek was necessary for some time to hold together Kuomintang to fight the Japanese. As a consequence of this pragmatic policy, the attacks on the communists gradually stopped. At the same time a stronger line was adopted towards Japanese expansion. But the Japanese occupied the whole of the eastern half of China, as the Kuomintang armies were not strong enough.

Communist Victory

With the surrender of the Japanese (1945), both the Kuomintang and the communists sought to occupy the Japanese areas. In this race the Kuomintang was successful. The cities and railways soon fell into their hands. Even the area around Peking was soon controlled by Chiang Kai-shek's forces, largely because of the military aid given by the USA.

With the massive support provided by the USA Kuomintang government controlled the administration, ports and communication system. But the soldiers, mainly drawn from the peasants, were disillusioned and discontented. Mao was keen on obtaining the support of the middle class. So he declared that what the communists wanted was the rule of the people, not the dictatorship of the proletariat; the end of exploitation, not absolute equality.

Mao continued the use of guerrilla tactics, but also ordered large-scale military movements. Cities fell one by one and Chiang Kai-shek's army began to disintegrate quickly. In the summer of 1948, Communist control had been established over most parts of China.

National People's Congress

In September 1949, before fighting had ended in the south of China, the people's Political Consultative Conference met in Peking. Consisting of over 650 delegates from the Communist Party and other left-wing organizations, the conference elected the Central Governing Council with Mao as its Chairman.

The establishment of the People's Republic of China under the leadership of Mao Tse Tung was a world-shaking event. There were now two mighty Communist powers in the world —the Soviet Union and People's Republic of China.

Denial of UNO Membership

The United-States refused to recognize the People's Republic of China for more than two decades. Instead, the government of Chiang Kai-shek in Taiwan (Formosa) was given recognition due to the pressure of the US.

4.2 Cold War: Rivalry between the US and the Soviet Union

Cold War

The rivalry that developed after World War II between the US and the USSR and their respective allies created tension which is referred to as Cold War. The two super powers were organised after the War into rival military alliances. They did not take recourse to weapons. Instead they waged war on political, economic and ideological fronts. The term 'Cold War' was first coined by the English writer George Orwell (1945).

1. Truman's Policy of Containment of Communism

In 1948 the Soviets had established socialist governments in the countries of eastern Europe that had been liberated from the Nazis by the Soviet Army. The Americans and the British feared the permanent Soviet domination of eastern Europe. Truman, the president of USA, pursued a policy of containment of communism. The Soviets were however determined not only to maintain control of eastern Europe, but also keen on spreading Communism world-wide.



Truman

2. Marshall Plan

The US conceived the Marshall Plan to bring the countries in western Europe under its influence. The plan sought to help the countries of Europe with American dollars to facilitate their early recovery from the destruction caused by the Second World War.



Marshall

The United States was much concerned that poverty, unemployment, and dislocation caused by the post-World War II period were increasing the appeal of communist parties in western Europe. The Secretary of State, George C. Marshall, advanced the idea of a European self-help programme to be financed by the United States. Sixteen nations, became part of this programme. Administrative and technical assistance was offered through the Economic Cooperation Administration (ECA) of the United States. European nations received nearly \$13 billion in aid with shipments of food, staples, fuel and machinery and later in investment in industrial capacity in Europe. Marshall Plan funding ended in 1951.

4.3 Formation of Military Alliances

(a) NATO

The United States and its European allies formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) to resist Soviet aggression in Europe (1949). It was an inter-state military alliance between the countries of North America and Europe. The



major member countries included Canada, Belgium, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxemburg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal and the United Kingdom. Later Greece and Turkey joined the organization (1952). Germany joined the NATO in 1955. The chief objective of NATO was the peace and security in the North Atlantic region. The members agreed that an armed attack against any one of them would be considered as an aggression against all the members of NATO. However even after the fall of the Soviet Union NATO has continued to expand. It had 29 members in 2017, including all seven non-Soviet former Warsaw Pact nations.

(b) SEATO or Manila Pact (1954)

The Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO) was organized for the collective security of countries in Southeast Asia. Following the signing of the Manila Pact (1954) by the US, France, England, New Zealand, Australia, the Philippines, Thailand and Pakistan. Member countries of SEATO were committed to prevent communism from gaining ground in the region. Unlike the NATO alliance, SEATO had no joint commands with standing forces.

(c) Warsaw Pact

As a counter to the NATO, Soviet Union organized the Soviet-bloc countries for a united military action, under the Warsaw Pact. In December 1954, a conference of eight European nations namely, Albania, Bulgaria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Poland, Romania and Russia took place in Moscow. They concluded the treaty on May 14, 1955. This is known as the Warsaw pact. A joint command of



armed forces of the member countries with its headquarters in Moscow was setup. The Warsaw Pact was dissolved in 1991 following the break-up of USSR.

(d) CENTO or the Baghdad Pact

In 1955 Turkey, Iraq, Great Britain, Pakistan and Iran signed a pact known as Baghdad Pact. In 1958 the United States joined the organisation and thereafter it came to be known as the Central Treaty Organization. This treaty was open to any Arab nation desiring peace and security in the region. CENTO was dissolved in 1979.

(e) High Military Expenditure on both sides

As a result of the military alliances, military expenditure on both sides kept increasing even in peace time. America had used the nuclear bomb against Japan to convey its destructive capability to the Soviet Union. In response the Soviet Union tested the nuclear bomb in 1949. There was intense competition to develop more and more destructive nuclear weapons.

The conflict between the two sides led to many international crises after the end of World War II. The danger of the use of nuclear weapons that could destroy the entire humankind was palpable. While both sides encouraged intellectuals to propagate their views, intellectuals like Bertrand Russell called for nuclear disarmament. Peace movements and popular organizations such as Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament came into existence in Europe to warn the world of the dangers of a nuclear war.

4.4 Korean War

The Korean War made the Cold War really hot. Since Korea was partitioned as North and South (1945), each side sought to win legitimacy by unifying the country. The President of North Korea Kim II



(People's Republic of Korea) decided to act before his southern rival, Syngman Rhee (the Republic of Korea), got the chance. He launched an attack in June 1950, with the tacit support of Stalin. Both Kim and Stalin did not expect the US to intervene. The war lasted for three years. The human cost was enormous. But the Korean people gained nothing. The final demarcation line was the same as at the beginning. This futile Korean War sums up the Cold War.



Korean War

Third World Countries

The capitalist countries led by the U.S. were politically designated as the First World, while the communist states led by the Soviet Union came to be known as the Second world. States outside these two were called Third World. When the term was originally introduced, the Third World principally consisted of the developing world, the former colonies of Africa, Asia, and Latin America. With the break-up of the Soviet Union in 1991, and the process of globalisation and economic competitiveness, the term has lost its relevance.

4.5 Non-Aligned Movement

The Non-Alignment Movement (NAM) emerged in the wake of decolonization that followed World War II. At the Bandung (a city in Indonesia) conference (1955), the newly independent countries of Asia and Africa gave a call for abstaining from allying with any of the two Super Powers. It also pledged to fight all forms of colonialism and imperialism.

The NAM held its first conference at Belgrade in 1961 under the leadership of

Tito (Yugoslavia), Nasser (Egypt), Nehru (India), Nkrumah (Ghana) and Sukarno (Indonesia). The basic principles of non-alignment, as listed in the statement issued at the Belgrade (a Serbian city, then part of Yugoslavia) Conference, were: peaceful co-existence, commitment to peace and security, no military alliance with any super power, no permission for any super power to build its military base in its territories. With the collapse of Soviet Union, the idea of non-alignment lost relevance.



4.6 The Cuban Revolution

The United States had its satellite states in Central America (Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Panama and Guatemala), the Caribbean (Cuba, the Dominion Republic and Haiti) and east Asia (the Philippines, South Korea, South Vietnam and Thailand). These states were governed by ruling groups made up of military personnel, landed gentry and occasionally of local capitalists. This made them dependent on US aid. At times the US intervened for a change of government to suit its economic and strategic interests. Its Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) was used for this purpose. For example, in 1954, the CIA organized the overthrow of a reformist government in Guatemala. Five years later the US tried to prop up the corrupt and dictatorial Cuban regime of Batista against the seizure of government by Fidel Castro and his colleague Che Guevara.





After Castro took power, the US-owned oil refineries on the island refused to process Russian oil. Castro nationalized them. The US retaliated by ending the arrangement by which it bought the bulk of Cuba's sugar. Castro nationalized the US-owned sugar companies, and ended the US monopolies in electricity and telephones. All these gravely threatened American economic interests.



Fidel Castro and Che Guevara

Cuban Missile Crisis

In April 1961, while landing an army of Cuban exiles on the island of Bay of Pigs, the US bombed Cuban



Cuban Missile Crisis

airfields with the objective of overthrowing Castro's regime. US warships surrounded Cuba. The Kennedy government had received intelligence that the USSR was secretly installing nuclear missiles in Cuba. Finally, the Soviet President Khrushchev agreed to withdraw the missiles and thus the Missile Crisis was defused.

Eventually the two sides reached an agreement. The Soviet Union removed the missiles from Cuba on an understanding that the US would never invade Cuba again. In secret the US also had to agree to remove their nuclear missiles from Turkey and Italy.

4.7 Arab-Israeli War

The Treaty of Versailles (1919) had provided for mandates in Turkish Arab Empire. France was given the mandate for Syria and Lebanon, and Britain for Iraq, Palestine and Jordan. This arrangement upset the Arabs

since they had expected independence at the end of World War I. Britain's promise to Zionist leaders that it would allocate one of the Arab lands, Palestine, to Jewish settlers from Europe further embittered the Arabs. There was growing Arab antagonism towards Zionist settlers, as they bought land from rich Arabs and evicted the local peasant families who had been cultivating it for centuries.

At the end of October 1945, the Jewish underground organizations like Irgun Zvai Leumi (Zionist Para-military Organization) and the Stern Gang (Zionist Terrorist Organization)

Zionist Movement

In Palestine, the ancient home of Jews, only a few thousand Jews were living in 1900. Some 15 million were scattered around Europe and North America. (This is referred to as the Diaspora.) These Jews had been subjected to systematic persecution for centuries. But in the late nineteenth century the persecution in Russia (where two-thirds of the world's Jews lived), France and Germany was intense. Some Jews emigrated to Palestine, while many more went to the United States and Britain. In 1896 Thodore Herzl, a Viennese journalist, published a pamphlet called *The Jewish State* in which he called for the creation of a Jewish national home. Next year (1897) the World Zionist Organisation was founded.

A r a b Nationalism
Since the dawn of the twentieth century Arab nationalism was growing in Syria



Arab League Summit

and Iraq. Subsequently nationalism became intense in Egypt. In March 1945 The Arab League was formed in Cairo. Its founder members were Egypt, Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Jordan and Yemen.



began to launch terror attacks on a large scale. Railways, bridges, airfields and government offices were blown up. The British government, presented the dispute to the UN for a decision.

Succumbing to the pressure of great powers, the UN resolved to partition the British mandate of Palestine into a Jewish state and an Arab state (29 November 1947). Clashes broke out almost immediately between Jews and Arabs in Palestine.

The Israelis, won control of the main road to Jerusalem and successfully repulsed repeated Arab attacks. By early 1949 the Israelis managed to occupy all of the Negev (a desert and semi-desert region of southern Israel) up to the former Egypt-Palestine frontier, except for the Gaza Strip (a self-governing Palestinian territory). As a result of separate armistice agreements between Israel and each of the Arab states, a temporary frontier was fixed between Israel and its neighbours. In Israel, the war is remembered as its War of Independence. In the Arab world, it is treated as the Nakbah (“Catastrophe”) as a large number of Arabs became refugees. Israel was admitted into the UN immediately much against the wishes of Arabs. Israel was established as a powerful state to assist Western interests – particularly the US – in return for arms and financial aid.



Declaration of the State of Israel

Suez Canal Crisis (1956)

In Egypt, in a coup in 1952, Colonel Nasser became its President. In 1956 he nationalized the Suez Canal, which undermined British interests. With the failure of diplomacy, Britain and France decided to use force. Israel saw this as an opportunity to open the Gulf of Aqaba to Israeli shipping and put a stop to Egyptian border raids. On 29 October Israeli forces invaded Egypt. Britain used this opportunity to demand that its troops be

allowed to occupy the canal zone to protect the canal. Egypt refused and on 31 October Britain and France bombed Egyptian airfields and other installations as well as the Suez Canal area. However, under pressure of world opinion, Britain and France ended hostilities on 6 November. India represented by Nehru played a crucial role in resolving the crisis.



Suez Canal crisis

Arab–Israeli War 1967

Ever since the formation of the Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO), Israel came to be attacked frequently by Palestinian guerrilla groups based in Syria, Lebanon and Jordan. Israeli resorted to violent reprisals. In November 1966 an Israeli strike on the village of Al-Samū in the Jordanian West Bank, left 18 dead and 54 wounded. Israel’s air battle with Syria in April 1967 ended in the shooting down six Syrian MiG fighter jets.

Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO)-

It is an umbrella political organization representing the world’s Palestinians – all Arabs and their descendants who lived in mandated Palestine before the creation of the State of Israel in 1948. It was formed in 1964 to federate various Palestinian groups that previously had operated as clandestine resistance movements. It came into prominence after the Arab-Israeli War of June 1967. The PLO was engaged in a protracted guerrilla war against Israel during the 1960s, ’70s, and ’80s before entering into peace negotiations in the 1990s. Yasser Arafat was its most prominent leader.

In his bid to demonstrate Egypt's support for Syria Nasser mobilized Egyptian forces in the Sinai, seeking the removal of UN emergency forces stationed there on May 18. On May 22 he closed the Gulf of Aqaba to Israeli shipping. King Hussein of Jordan signed a mutual defence pact with Egypt. Accordingly, it was decided to place Jordanian forces under Egyptian command. Soon, Iraq too joined the alliance.

Israel's Offensive

Following the mobilization of Arab states by Nasser, on June 5, Israel staged a sudden pre-emptive air strike that destroyed more than 90 percent of Egypt's air force on the tarmac. A similar air assault incapacitated the Syrian air force. Within three days the Israelis had achieved an overwhelming victory on the ground, capturing the Gaza Strip and all of the Sinai Peninsula up to the east bank of the Suez Canal. An eastern front was also opened on June 5 when Jordanian forces began shelling West Jerusalem. On June 7 Israeli forces drove Jordanian forces out of East Jerusalem and most of the West Bank.



King Hussein of Jordan and Egypt's Nasser

UN Intervention

The UN Security Council called for a ceasefire. While Egypt, Jordan and Israel responded to the call favourably Syria continued to shell villages in northern Israel. On June 9 Israel launched an assault on the fortified Golan Heights and capturing it. Syria accepted the ceasefire on June 10.



Yasser Arafat
(1924–2004)

In 1969, Yasser Arafat became chairman of the PLO's executive committee a position he held until his death in 2004. Yasser Arafat was appointed commander-in-chief of the all Palestinian Arab guerilla forces in September 1970. At this time the PLO was driven out of Jordan after Palestine factions attempted to overthrow the government of King Hussein. Arafat and the PLO eventually found their way to Beirut which remained the center of PLO operations against Israel until 1982. Wearing a Harley disguised pistol and carrying an olive branch and dressed in a military uniform, his appearance raised world awareness of the Palestinian cause. Arafat was elected by the central council of the PLO as the first president of the state of Palestine on April 2, 1989.

The Arab losses in the war were heavy. The defeat demoralized both the Arab public and the political elite. The Six-Day War also marked the start of a new phase in the conflict between Israel and the Palestinians. The conflict created hundreds of thousands of refugees and brought more than one million Palestinians in the occupied territories under Israeli rule.

Arab-Israeli War 1973

Egypt and Syria under Presidents Anwar Sadat and Hafez al-Assad respectively concluded a secret agreement in January 1973 to bring their



Anwar Sadat and Hafez al-Assad

armies under one command. Assad was keen on retrieving Golan Heights. Aware that his country's weapons were outdated,

Sadat offered the Israelis a peace deal, if they withdrew from Sinai. Israel rejected the offer. Egypt and Syria launched a sudden and surprise attack on the Yom Kippur religious holiday (6 October 1973). Though Israel suffered heavy casualties it finally pushed back the Arab forces. But this time, due to UN intervention, Israel was forced to return to its 1967 position. Arabs gained nothing out of this war too. By way of mediation the US succeeded in asserting its hegemony over the region and its oil. Its strategy of encouraging hostility between states and peoples resulted in a succession of wars – civil war in Lebanon, and the war between Iraq and Iran in the 1980s, Israel's invasion of Lebanon in 1982 and the US-led war against Iraq in 1991.

4.8 Vietnam War

By the end of Second World War Viet Minh controlled the northern half of Vietnam. Viet Minh formed a government led by Ho Chi Minh in Hanoi. This Viet Minh government quickly occupied the southern half of Vietnam. However, the Allied Powers decided at Potsdam that the British in the south and the Chinese in the north should defend Indo-China from the Japanese. But Ho Chi Minh had established his control very firmly and so, early in 1946, the British and Chinese troops had to withdraw, leaving the French and Viet Minh to confront each other. In March the two governments (French and Viet Minh) reached an agreement by which North Vietnam was to be a free state, within an Indo-Chinese Federation. But the new French constitution included all overseas colonies in a French Union.

In 1949 the French attempted to secure the support of the population by declaring Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia independent within the French Union, retaining only foreign affairs and defence under French control. However, the problem of Indo-China soon became involved in the Cold War. China, Russia and the East European countries

recognized the Viet Minh government, while the Western powers recognized the new Vietnam government of Bao Dai.

While the French were receiving considerable financial aid from America, the Viet Minh were helped by the new Chinese communist government. The French troops were eventually defeated. The Geneva Conference (1954) that met on Korea and Indo China decided that Vietnam was to be an independent state but temporarily divided; the Viet Minh to control the north and Bao Dai to head the government the south. Cambodia and Laos were to be independent.

With a population of 16 million North Vietnam became a Communist state with Ho Chi Minh as President. South Vietnam, approximately of the same size and population, was ruled by Ngo Dinh Diem. Diem refused to hold the elections to decide on a united Vietnam. The US initially supported the Diem regime as it hoped of establishing a strong non-communist government in South Vietnam as a bulwark against the spread of communism in Asia. However, by 1962, it was clear that Diem was incapable of controlling the situation. This led to the posting of more US armed forces in the area.

The government's survival in South Vietnam depended on increasing amounts of US support. In 1965 marines landed at Danang naval base, and there were 33,500 US troops in the country within a month. The number increased and there were 210,000 by the end of year. The US bombed both North and South in the hope that it could force the liberation forces to abandon the struggle. The fighters of North Vietnam, trained in guerilla warfare, had grown out of spontaneous struggles against a repressive regime. They sustained their resistance without bowing to the US. The American troops also used bacteriological weapons.

Incendiary bombs such as napalm and Agent Orange (to defoliate the forest cover) were used. Vast areas of Vietnam were devastated and hundreds of thousands of people killed. The American forces too suffered heavy casualties.



American Bombing of North Vietnam

Escalation of the total military outlay caused the US big business to protest. The youths rebelled against the conscription and the horrors of war. Thousands of Americans refused to be drafted in the US army and many American soldiers deserted. Anti-Vietnam War protests rocked universities and colleges across the US and in Europe, and became part of the 1960s counterculture. No other single issue united millions of people all over the world as the war of Vietnam. However, the US government continued the war even though it was clear that it could not be won.



Anti-Vietnam War Demonstrations

Early in 1975, the war took a decisive turn. The armies of North Vietnam and of the National Liberation Front of South Vietnam swept across the country routing the American supported troops of South Vietnam. By 30 April 1975, all the American troops had withdrawn and the

capital of South Vietnam, Saigon, was liberated. North and South Vietnam were formally united as one country in 1976. The city of Saigon was renamed as Ho Chi-Minh City after the great leader of the Vietnamese people.

The emergence of Vietnam as a united and independent nation was an historic event. A small country had succeeded in winning independence and unification in the face of the armed opposition of the greatest power in the world. The help given to Vietnam by the socialist countries, the political support extended by a large number of Asian and African countries, and the solidarity expressed by the peoples in all parts of the world, helped in achieving this.

4.9 Towards European Union

(a) Council of Europe

One of the momentous decisions taken in the post-War II era was to integrate the states of Western Europe. In doing so the Europeans wanted (1) to prevent further European wars by ending the rivalry between France and Germany. (2) to create a united Europe to resist any threat from Soviet Russia. (3) to form a third force in the world to counter-balance the strength of the US and USSR. (4) to make full use of the economic and military resources of Europe by organizing them on a continental scale. In May 1949 ten countries met in London and signed to form a Council of Europe. The Council of Europe with headquarters at Strasbourg was established with a committee of foreign ministers of member countries and a Consultative Assembly, drawn from the parliaments of foreign countries.

(b) European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC)

Since the Council of Europe had no real power, a proposal to set up two European organizations was made. Accordingly, the European Defence Community (EDC) and the European Coal and Steel Community



(ECSC) were established. Six countries (France, West Germany, Italy, Belgium, Holland and Luxemburg belonging to ECSC signed the treaty of Rome which established the European Economic Community (EEC) or the European Common Market, with headquarters at Brussels. Britain did not join the EEC. Instead it floated a European Free Trade Association with Portugal, Denmark, Austria, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland as member states.



Ho Chin Minh City (Saigon)

(c) European Economic Community (EEC)

The EEC eliminated barriers to the movement of goods, services, capital, and labour. It also prohibited public policies or private agreements that restricted market competition. A common agricultural policy (CAP) and a common external trade policy were evolved. European Common market was a remarkable success. Throughout the 1970s and '80s the EEC kept expanding. In 1973 the United Kingdom, Denmark, and Ireland were admitted, followed by Greece in 1981 and Portugal and Spain in 1986.

(d) Single European Act (SEA)

The Single European Act came into force on July 1, 1987. It significantly expanded the EEC's scope giving the meetings of the EPC a legal basis. It also called for more intensive coordination of foreign policy among member countries. According to the SEA, each member was given multiple votes, depending on the country's population. Approval of legislation required roughly two-thirds of the votes of all members. The new procedure also increased the role of the European Parliament.

(e) European Union (EU)

The Maastricht (Netherlands) Treaty signed on February 7, 1992, created the European Union. The monetary policy and a common currency (euro) to replace national currencies managed by common monetary institutions were subsequently planned and implemented. Today the European Union has 28 member states, and functions from its headquarters at Brussels, Belgium. In 2017, Britain voted to exit the EU.

4.10 Fall of Berlin Wall and End of Cold War Era

The division of Germany into West (Federal Republic of Germany) and East (German Democratic Republic) led to glaring differences in living standards. West Berlin's



economy became prosperous thanks to the support received from the West under the Marshall Plan. In contrast the USSR had little interest in developing the economy of East Berlin. Further, people in East Berlin suffered from lack of democracy and freedom. Therefore, people of East Berlin tried to move to West Berlin. In West Berlin, on the other hand, there was a fear that the Soviets could use military force to take West Berlin. In this context, East German began to construct a wall in 1961 which virtually cut off West Berlin from East Berlin and the surrounding East German areas. It was heavily guarded with watch towers and other lethal impediments to stop people from the East. In the late 1980s, as USSR's hold over Eastern European countries was weakening, a mass of people assembled on 9 November 1989 on both sides of the wall and began to demolish it. Germany was officially reunited on 3 October 1990. The Berlin Wall was more than just a physical barrier. It was a symbolic boundary between communism and capitalism. With the fall of the Berlin Wall, followed by the collapse of the Soviet Union, the Cold War era came to an end.



Helmut Kohl, Chancellor of West Germany from 1982 to 1990, and played a crucial role in integrating East Germany into West Germany in 1990. He thus became the first chancellor of a unified Germany after forty five years of division. He was Chairman of Christian Democratic union from 1973 to 1998. He was committed to the economic integration of Europe and to French-German cooperation. With French president Mitterand, Kohl was the architect of the Maastricht Treaty, which established the European Union (EU) and the euro currency.



Demolition of Berlin wall

Disintegration of the Soviet Union

In the 1970s and early 1980s the Soviet Union continued to retain a strong and dominant position in international politics. However, its economy was suffering, and was unable to match the productive capacity of the first world. In 1985, Mikhail Gorbachev took over as head of the USSR. After Brezhnev's long tenure as General Secretary of the Communist Party and his death in 1982, his successors had died in quick succession. After 'the thaw' during Nikita Khrushchev's reign, under Brezhnev's rule Soviet Union had relapsed into a closed society with little freedom. In this context, Gorbachev spoke about the need for openness (Glasnost) and reform (perestroika). But his commitment to reform, apart from opposition within the ruling communist party, did not match the resources available to USSR. In the middle of the 1980s about one third of the total GDP was going to the military. In order to maintain a parity with

the US, in the context of President Reagan's Star Wars programme, it became necessary for the Soviet Union to allocate more funds to the military. The increase in military budget further strained the Soviet economy.

By the end of the decade the economic stagnation the Soviet Union suffered aggravated ethnic tension and promoted regionalism and nationalism. The year 1988 saw the first mass protests –first in Armenia, and then in the Baltic States. Earlier Soviet regimes had used severe repression to quell such uprisings. But, in the context of perestroika and a weakened economy, Gorbachev could not take recourse to such brutal measures. The Chernobyl Disaster, a major accident in a nuclear plant in Ukraine, in 1986, was another blow. Gorbachev made moves to stabilise his position by reliance on conservative forces in 1989 and 1991. But on each occasion he was interrupted by massive miners' strike which came close to cripple the country's energy supplies.

Perestroika ('restructuring') refers to the programme introduced by Mikhail Gorbachev in the late 1980s to restructure Soviet economic and political system. Along with the policy of 'Glasnost' ('openness'), Perestroika was intended to energize Soviet economy which was lagging behind the developed countries of the capitalist world. Even though the economy continued to be monitored centrally elementary reforms oriented towards the market were introduced. However, it failed and the contradictions in the economy got more intense. As such it failed to arrest the downward slide of the Soviet economy.

Glasnost ('openness') was a policy of ideologically openness introduced by Mikhail Gorbachev along with Perestroika in the 1980s. After 'the thaw' under Nikita Khrushchev, from the 1960s under Leonid Brezhnev, the ideological and cultural climate was stifling with dissent being crushed ruthlessly. Under Glasnost there was more openness, writers who had been censored earlier were rehabilitated, and there was space for criticism of politics and government.



The East European communist states, under the Soviet umbrella, were also in a deep economic and social crisis. Gorbachev's decision to loosen the Soviet control on the countries of Eastern Europe created an independent, democratic momentum. A series of workers' strikes undermined the communist regimes first in Poland and then in Hungary. A wave of demonstrations that swept East Germany led to demolition of the Berlin Wall in 1989. Subsequent to it, regimes in Czechoslovakia, followed by Bulgaria, fell. An attempt by Romania's Nicolae Ceaușescu to resist the wave of change by shooting down demonstrators ended in his execution by a firing squad (December 1989) under the command of his own generals. The televised images of the shooting and the fall of the Berlin Wall galvanized the process of the breaking up of the communist world. In six months the political map of half of Europe had been redrawn.

In this context, the various nationalities inside the various soviet republics of USSR became increasingly assertive. The division within the ruling group was growing ever wider and its control over society becoming more difficult. Gorbachev made a last attempt to take a hard line against the disruptionist only to be challenged by a second great miners' strike in 1991 and huge demonstrations in Moscow. In response, conservative forces in his government attempted to take a hard line without Gorbachev. They used troops in Moscow to stage a coup, and held Gorbachev under house arrest. But other military units refused to back them and as a result power fell into the hands of Boris Yeltsin, a reformer backed by the West.

In the meantime, three Baltic States had formally left the Soviet Union. They were admitted to the U.N. as independent countries: Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. In November 1991 eleven republics (Ukraine, Georgia, Belarus, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Turkmenistan, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan) announced secession from the Soviet Union. Instead, they declared they would establish a Commonwealth of Independent States. On 25 December Gorbachev announced his resignation. For six days the Soviet Union continued to exist only in name and at midnight on 31 December 1991, it was formally dissolved. The USSR was no more.

Yeltsin was first an ally of Gorbachev. However, as Mayor of Moscow, Yeltsin won great popularity as a champion of political and economic freedom. With Gorbachev's introduction of democratic elections for the Soviet parliament, Yeltsin was returned to power with overwhelming support of a Moscow constituency in 1989. The following year he was elected President of Russia over Gorbachev's objections. President Yeltsin advocated greater autonomy of the Russian Republic, with executive presidential system that would allow him to govern independently of parliament.



Yeltsin

Gorbachev

SUMMARY

- The history of China becoming a Communist country in the aftermath of Second War is narrated with the portrayal of developments there after the revolution of 1911.
- Rivalry between the US and the USSR, leading to the division of world into two military blocs and the significance of NATO and Warsaw Pact, are highlighted.

- Cold War developments are illustrated with cases of Korean War, Cuban Missile Crisis, Arab-Israeli Wars and Vietnam War.
- Launch of Non-Alignment Movement, representing the view-points of Third World countries, is described.
- Establishment of Council of Europe to act independently of the influence of USA that later developed into European Common Market and into European Union today is explained.

A-Z GLOSSARY

antagonistic	acting against or indicating	பகையுணர்வு கொண்ட
wriggle out	to avoid doing something	நழுவுதல்
ascension	the act of rising to an important position or a higher level, a movement upward	வளர்ச்சி, உயர்வு
legendary	celebrated	பெருமை வாய்ந்த, புகழ்பெற்ற
disillusioned	disappointed on finding out something is not as good as hoped	அதிருப்தி
abstaining	restrain oneself from doing something	விலகியிருத்தல், ஒதுங்கியிருத்தல்
embitter	cause to feel bitter – to make hateful	வெறுப்புணர்ச்சி, கசப்புணர்வு
incapacitated	lacking in or deprived of strength or power	திறனற்றதாக்குதல், முடமாக்குதல்
bacteriological weapons	the use of harmful bacteria as a weapon	நுண்ணுயிரியல் ஆயுதங்கள்



EXERCISE



I. Choose the correct answer

- Who was the first director of Whampoa Military Academy?
 - Sun Yat-Sen
 - Chiang Kai-Shek
 - Michael Borodin
 - Chou En Lai
- Which American President followed the policy of containment of Communism?
 - Woodrow Wilson
 - Truman
 - Theodore Roosevelt
 - Franklin Roosevelt
- When was People's Political Consultative Conference held in China?
 - September 1959
 - September 1948
 - September 1954
 - September 1949
- The United States and European allies formed _____ to resist any Soviet aggression in Europe.
 - SEATO
 - NATO
 - SENTO
 - Warsaw Pact
- Who became the Chairman of the PLO's Executive Committee in 1969?
 - Hafez al-Assad
 - Yasser Arafat
 - Nasser
 - Saddam Hussein
- When was North and South Vietnam united?
 - 1975
 - 1976
 - 1973
 - 1974
- Where was Arab League formed?
 - Cairo
 - Jordan
 - Lebanon
 - Syria

8. When was the Warsaw Pact dissolved?
 a) 1979 b) 1989
 c) 1990 d) 1991

II. Fill in the blanks

- _____ was known as the “Father of modern China”.
- In 1918, the society for the study of Marxism was formed in _____ University.
- After the death of Dr. Sun Yat Sen, the leader of the Kuomintang party was _____.
- _____ treaty is open to any Arab nation desiring peace and security in the region.
- The treaty of _____ provided for mandates in Turkish -Arab Empire.
- Germany joined the NATO in _____.
- _____ was the Headquarters of the Council of Europe.
- _____ treaty signed on February 7, 1992 created the European Union.

III. Choose the correct statement/statements

- In China (1898) the young emperor, under the influence of the educated minority, initiated a series of reforms known as the 100 days of reforms.
 - The Kuomintang Party represented the interests of the workers and peasants.
 - Yuan Shih-Kai had lost prestige in the eyes of Nationalists, when he agreed to the demand of Japan to have economic control of Manchuria and Shantung.
 - Soviet Union refused to recognize the People’s Republic of China for more than two decades.
 - (i) and (ii) are correct
 - (ii) and (iii) are correct
 - (i) and (iii) are correct
 - (i) and (iv) are correct

- In 1948, the Soviets had established left wing government in the countries of Eastern Europe that had been liberated by the Soviet Army.
 - The chief objective of NATO was to preserve peace and security in the North Atlantic region.
 - The member countries of SEATO were committed to prevent democracy from gaining ground in the region.
 - Britain used the atomic bomb against Japan to convey its destructive capability to the USSR.
 - (ii), (iii) and (iv) are correct
 - (i) and (ii) are correct
 - (iii) and (iv) are correct
 - (i), (ii) and (iii) are correct
- Assertion (A):** America’s Marshall Plan was for reconstruction of the war-ravaged Europe.

Reason (R): The US conceived the Marshal Plan to bring the countries in the Western Europe under its influence.

 - Both (A) and (R) are correct, but R is not the correct explanation of A
 - Both (A) and (R) are wrong
 - Both (A) and (R) are correct and R is the correct explanation of A
 - (A) is wrong and (R) is correct

IV. Match the following

- Dr. Sun Yat-Sen - South Vietnam
- Syngman Rhee - Kuomintang
- Anwar Sadat - South Korea
- Ho-Chi Minh - Egypt
- Ngo Dinh Diem - North Vietnam

V. Answer briefly

- Write any three causes for the Chinese Revolution of 1911.
- Explain how in 1928 Kuomintang and Chiang-Kai Shek established Central Government in China.
- Write a note on Mao’s Long March.

4. What do you know of Baghdad Pact?
5. What was Marshall Plan?
6. The Suez Canal crisis confirmed that Israel had been created to serve the cause of western interests –Elaborate.
7. Write a note on Third World Countries.
8. How was the Cuban missile crisis defused?

VI. Answer all the questions under each caption

1. Cold War
 - a) Name the two military blocs that emerged in the Post-World War II.
 - b) Who coined the term “Cold War” and who used it first?
 - c) What was the response of Soviet Russia to the formation of NATO?
 - d) What was the context in which Warsaw Pact was dissolved?
2. Korean War
 - a) Who was the President of North Korea during the Korean War?
 - b) Name the southern rival to the President of North Korea.
 - c) How long did the Korean War last?
 - d) What was the human cost of the War?
3. Non-Aligned Movement (NAM)
 - a) When and where was the first conference on Non-Aligned Movement held?
 - b) Who were the prominent personalities present in the first conference?
 - c) What were the objectives of NAM?
 - d) List out any two basic principles of Non-Alignment Movement enunciated in the Belgrade Conference.

VII. Answer in detail

1. Estimate the role of Mao Tse tung in making China a communist country.
2. Attempt an essay on the Arab-Israeli wars of 1967 and 1973.
3. Narrate the history of transformation of Council of Europe into an European Union.

VIII. Activity

1. Divide the class into two groups. Let one group act as supporters of USA and the other group act as supporters of Soviet Union, Organise a debate.
2. Involving the entire class, an album may be prepared with pictures relating to Korean, Arab-Israeli and Vietnam Wars to highlight the human sufferings in terms of death and devastation.



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INTERNET RESOURCES

Timeline

- 1934 - Long March
- 1949 - NATO
- 1954 - SEATO
- 1955 - Warsaw Pact
- 1956 - Suez Canal Crisis
- 1961 - Belgrade Conference

Unit - 5

Social and Religious Reform Movements in the 19th Century



Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- The influence of Western ideas and Christianity in creating a new awakening in 19th century British India
- Contestation in the social and religious sphere – opposition to practices like sati, slavery, untouchability, and child marriage
- Opposition to idolatry, rituals and superstitious beliefs
- Contribution of Brahma Samaj, Arya Samaj, Ramakrishna Mission, Theosophical Society and Aligarh Movement to the regeneration of India
- Role played by prominent personalities in bringing about this awakening amongst Parsees and Sikhs
- Social movement of Jyotiba Phule and reform movements in Kerala and Tamilnadu



Introduction

English education, introduced with the object of producing clerks, also produced a new English-educated middle class. This class came under the influence of western ideas and thoughts. Christianity also had its effect on the newly emerging middle class. Though small in number, the educated middle class began to take a lead in political as well as in reform movements. The Indian reformers were, however, quite hesitant to subject their old notions and habits to critical scrutiny. Instead they attempted to harmonize both Indian and Western cultures. Their ideas and their actions helped to mitigate social evils such as sati, female infanticide, and child marriage and various superstitious beliefs.

The reform movements of nineteenth century in the realm of religion fall under two broad categories: reformist movements like the

Brahmo Samaj, the Prarthana Samaj and the Aligarh Movement; and the revivalist movements such as the Arya Samaj, the Ramakrishna Mission and the Deoband Movement. There were also attempts to challenge the oppressive social structure by Jyotiba Phule in Pune, Narayana Guru and Ayyankali in Kerala and Ramalinga Adigal and Vaikunda Swamikal of Tamilnadu. The two other notable social reformers of Tamilnadu Periyar E.V.R. and Iyothee Thassar are dealt with comprehensively in Unit X.

5.1 Early Reform Movements in Bengal

(a) Raja Rammohan Roy and Brahma Samaj

Rammohan Roy (1772–1833) was one of the earlier reformers influenced by the

Western ideas to initiate reforms. He was a great scholar, well-versed in Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian, and English apart from his knowledge in his mother tongue, Bengali. Rammohan Roy was opposed to meaningless religious



Raja Rammohan Roy ceremonies and all forms of pernicious social customs. Yet he wanted to preserve continuity with the past. In his religio-philosophical social outlook, he was deeply influenced by monotheism and anti-idolatry. Based on his interpretation of the Upanishads, he argued that all the ancient texts of the Hindus preached monotheism or worship of one God.

Deeply concerned with the prevailing customs of sati, child marriage, and polygamy he published tracts against them and petitioned the government to legislate against them. He advocated the rights of widows to remarry. He wanted polygamy to end. His opinions were resisted fiercely by orthodox Hindus. He appealed to reason and humanity and compassion of the people. He visited the crematorium of Calcutta to try and persuade the relatives of widows to give up their plan of self-immolation. His campaign played a key role in forcing the Governor-General William Bentinck's legislation abolishing sati in 1829.

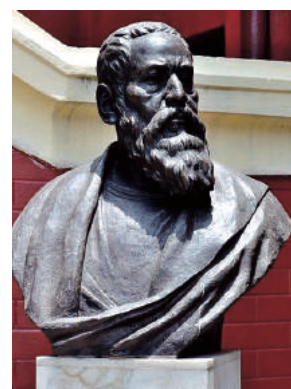
Rammohan Roy condemned the subjugation of women and opposed the prevailing ideas that women were inferior to men. He strongly advocated education for women. He gave his full support for the introduction of English language and western sciences in schools and colleges. Rammohan found in the Upanishads a new revelation of one infinite, divine Being, the eternal Brahman, while Hinduism as he saw in the daily life around him was a perversion of their teaching.

Rammohan Roy founded the Brahma Samaj in 1828. On 20 August 1828 he opened a

temple in Calcutta, where there was no image. There he laid down that 'no religion should be reviled or slightly or contemptuously spoken off or alluded to.' The Samaj forbade idol-worship and condemned meaningless religious rites and ceremonies. However, from the beginning, the appeal of the Brahma Samaj remained limited to the intellectuals and enlightened Bengalis. Though the Samaj failed to attract the people from the lower sections of society, its impact on the culture of modern Bengal and its middle class was quite significant.

(b) Maharishi Debendranath Tagore

After the death of Rammohan Roy (1833), Maharishi Debendranath Tagore (1817-1905), the poet Rabindranath Tagore's father, carried on the work. He laid down four articles of faith:



1. In the beginning there was nothing. Debendranath Tagore The one Supreme Being alone existed who created the Universe. 2. He alone is the God of Truth, Infinite Wisdom, Goodness, and Power, eternal, omnipresent, the One without second. 3. Our salvation depends on belief in Him and in His worship in this world and the next. 4. Belief consists in loving Him and doing His will.

(c) Keshab Chandra Sen & Brahma Samaj of India

Debendranath was a moderate reformer. But his younger colleagues in the Sabha were for rapid changes. The greatest of these, Keshab Chandra Sen, (1838-84) joined the movement in 1857. He was greatly influenced by Christianity,



Keshab Chandra Sen

believing in its spirit but not in the person of its founder. But in 1866 a split occurred in the ranks of Brahmo Samaj. Keshab left the Samaj and founded a new organization. Debendranath's organization, thereafter, came to be known as Adi Brahmo Samaj. After Keshab had his fourteen-year-old daughter married to an Indian prince, in contravention of the Samaj's condemnation of child marriages, the opponents of child marriage left the Brahmo Samaj of India and started the Sadharan Samaj, which developed anti-Christian tendencies.

(d) Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar

Another outstanding reformer in Bengal was Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar (1820–1891). While Ram Mohan Roy and others looked to western rationalist ideas to reform society,



Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar

Vidyasagar argued that the Hindu scriptures were progressive. He provided evidence from scriptures that there was no sanction for burning of widows or for the prohibition on the remarriage of widows. He wrote a number of polemical tracts, and was the pioneer of modern Bengali prose. He played a leading role in promoting education of girls and helped them in setting up a number of schools. He dedicated his whole life for the betterment of the child widows of the Hindu society. The movement led by Vidyasagar, resulted in the Widows' Remarriage Reform Act of 1856. This Act was intended to improve the lot of child widows and save them from perpetual widowhood.

(e) Prarthana Samaj

The Maharashtra region was another region where reform activities gained

It was also to the credit of Vidyasagar that the first age of consent Act was enacted in 1860. The age for marriage was fixed as ten years. It was raised to twelve and thirteen years in 1891 and 1925 respectively. Sadly, as reported in the Age of Consent Committee (1929), the law remained on paper and the knowledge of it was confined to judges, lawyers and a few educated men.

steam. A movement similar to the Brahmo Samaj, but founded in Bombay in 1867, was Prarthana Samaj. Its founder was Dr. Atma Ram Pandurang (1825–1898). The two distinguished members of this Samaj were R.C. Bhandarkar and Justice Mahadev Govind Ranade. They devoted themselves to activities such as inter-caste dining, inter-caste marriage, widow remarriage and improvement of women and depressed classes. Ranade (1842–1901) was the founder of the Widow Marriage Association (1861), the Poona Sarvajanik Sabha (1870) and the Deccan Education Society (1884).

While the above reformers worked among the upper castes, during the same time Jyotiba Phule worked for the uplift of depressed castes and the cause of women. His book Gulamgiri ('Slavery') is an important work that condemned the inequities of caste.



Dr. Atma Ram Pandurang



M.G. Ranade

5.2 Hindu Revivalism

(a) Swami Dayanand Saraswati and Arya Samaj, 1875

In the Punjab, the reform movement was spearheaded by the Arya Samaj. It was founded (1875) by a wandering ascetic in the western Gangetic plain, Swami Dayanand Saraswati (1824–83). Swami Dayanand later settled in the Punjab to preach his ideas. His book, *Satyarthaprakash*, enjoyed



Swami Dayanand Saraswati

wide circulation. He declared the practices such as child marriage, the prohibition of widow remarriage, and the alleged polluting effects of foreign travel had no scriptural sanction. The positive principles enunciated by Dayanand were: strict monotheism, condemnation of idolatry, and rejection of Brahman domination of ritual and social practices. He also rejected superstitious beliefs in Hinduism, especially Puranic literature and his cry was “go back to Vedas.”

Arya Samaj attempted to check the incidence of religious conversion in British India. One of its main objectives was counter-conversion, prescribing a purificatory ceremony called *suddhi*, directed at Hindus who had converted to Islam and Christianity.

The late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were a period of great turmoil in undivided Punjab with intense debates between Hinduism, Islam and Christianity.

The primary achievements of the Arya Samaj were in the field of social reform and spread of education. The Samaj started a number of Dayananda Anglo–Vedic schools and colleges.

In 1893 Arya Samaj split over the question of doctrinal purity. Swami Shraddhananda (1857–1926), a charismatic figure after Dayananda, accused the group running the DAV School of being too Westernized and thereby ignoring the founder’s ideology. From 1900 onward, he established his own network of schools, the Gurukulas, which were outwardly modelled after ancient Hindu seats of learning, emphasising the study of the Vedas.

(b) Ramakrishna

As we saw earlier, the Brahma Samaj, as a response to Christian and rationalist criticism had criticised idolatry and other orthodox Hindu practices. The popularity that Ramakrishna (1836–86), a simple priest of Dakshineswar near Kolkata, gained in the latter half of the nineteenth century was a response to this. He emphasised the spiritual union with god through ecstatic practices such as singing bhajans. An ardent worshipper of goddess Kali, the sacred mother, he declared that the manifestations of the divine mother were infinite. In his view, all religions contain the universal elements which, if practised, would lead to salvation. He said, “Jiva is Siva” (all living beings are God). Why then talk of showing mercy to them? Not mercy, but service, service for man, must be regarded as God.’



Ramakrishna



Ramakrishna Mission, Belur Math

Ramakrishna Mission

Ramakrishna’s primary achievement was his ability to attract educated youth

who were dissatisfied with the rational orientation of religious reform organizations such as the Brahma Samaj. After his death in 1886, his disciples organised themselves as a religious community and undertook the task of making his life and teaching known in India and abroad. The chief spirit behind this task was Vivekananda. Following the organizational structure of Christian missionaries, Vivekananda established the Ramakrishna Mission which did not restrict itself to religious activities but was actively involved in social causes such as education, health care and relief in times of calamities.

(c) Swami Vivekananda

Narendra Nath Datta (1863–1902), later known as Swami Vivekananda, was the prime follower of Ramakrishna Paramahansa. An educated youth, he was drawn to Ramakrishna's message. Dissatisfied with conventional philosophical positions and practices, he advocated the practical Vedanta of service to humanity and attacked the tendency to defend every institution simply because it was connected with religion. He emphasized a cultural nationalism and made a call to Indian youth to regenerate Hindu society. His ideas bred a sense of self-confidence among Indians who felt inferior in relation to the materialist achievements of the West. He became famous for his addresses on Hinduism at the 1893 World Congress of Religions in Chicago. Despite his fame, he was condemned by orthodox Hindus for suggesting that the lower castes should be allowed to engage in the Hindu rituals from which they were traditionally excluded. Vivekananda's activist ideology rekindled the desire for political change among many western-education young Bengalis. Many of the youths who were



Swami Vivekananda

involved in the militant nationalist struggle during the Swadeshi movement following the Partition of Bengal were inspired by Vivekananda.

(d) Theosophical Movement

During the nineteenth century, Hindu religion and culture were being discredited in the West, especially due to missionary propaganda. However, some Western intellectuals looked to the East for spiritual salvation as a remedy to the materialistic orientation of the West. The Theosophical Society, founded by Madame H.P. Blavatsky (1831–1891) and Colonel H.S. Olcott (1832–1907) played a key role in this. Founded in the USA in 1875, it later shifted to India at Adyar, Chennai in 1886.



Madame Blavatsky

Colonel H.S. Olcott

Theosophical Society stimulated a study of the Hindu classics, especially the Upanishads and the Bhagavad Gita. The Theosophical Society also played an important role in the revival of Buddhism in India. Western interest in Hindu scriptures gave educated Hindus great pride in their tradition and culture.

Contribution of Annie Besant

In India the movement became further popular with the election of Annie Besant (1847–1933) as its president after the death of Olcott. She played a role in Indian nationalist politics, and formed the Home Rule League demanding home rule to India on the lines

of Ireland. Annie Besant spread Theosophical ideas through her newspapers called *New India* and *Commonweal*.



Annie Besant

5.3 Anti-Caste

(a) Jyotiba Phule

Jyotiba Govindrao Phule was born in 1827 in Maharashtra. Phule is chiefly known



Jyotiba Phule and Savitribai Phule

as the earliest leader of the non-Brahman movement. He opened the first school for “untouchables” in 1852 in Poona. He launched the Satyashodak Samaj (Truth-Seekers Society) in 1870 to stir the non-Brahman masses to self-respect and ambition. Phule opposed child marriage and supported widow remarriage, which was prohibited particularly among high-caste Hindus. Jyotiba and his wife Savitribai Phule devoted their lives for the uplift of the depressed classes and women. Jotiba opened orphanages and homes for widows. Unlike many contemporary nationalists he welcomed British rule and missionary activities on the ground that British rule enabled lower castes to challenge the supremacy of Brahmins. His work, *Gulamgiri* (Slavery) is an important text that summarized many of his radical ideas.

(b) Narayana Guru

Born to poor parents in Kerala, Narayana Guru (1854–1928) evolved into a poet and scholar in Malayalam, Tamil and Sanskrit. In his days the people of depressed classes had no access



Narayana Guru

to temples, streets, public tanks and wells and educational institutions. Men and women belonging to lower castes were not allowed to wear the upper garments. Disturbed by the terrible caste tyranny, that the lower caste people suffered, he dedicated his whole life for the betterment of the oppressed. He set up the Sri Narayana Dharma Paripalana Yogam, an organization to work for the uplift of the “depressed classes”. He established a grand temple at Aruvipuram and dedicated it to all. His movement inspired a radical transformation of Kerala society, especially among the Ezhavas. Thinkers and writers such as Kumaran Asan and Dr Palpu were influenced by his ideas and carried forward the movement.

(c) Ayyankali

Nineteenth-century Kerala region was plagued by caste discriminations of worst kind. Certain social groups were not only considered untouchable but also un-seeable. However, the strident campaigns by thinkers such as



Ayyankali

Narayana Guru and Ayyankali (1863–1941) in the context of larger political and economic changes ushered in tremendous social changes, especially in the caste structure.

Ayyankali was born in 1863 at Venganoor in Thiruvananthapuram then in the princely state of Travancore. The discrimination he

faced as a child turned him into a leader of an anti-caste movement and who later fought for basic rights including access to public spaces and entry to schools. Ayyankali challenged many caste conventions such as clothing style; he wore clothes associated with upper castes that were prohibited for lower castes. He rode on an ox-cart challenging the 'ban' on untouchables from accessing public roads used by caste Hindus.

Inspired by Sree Narayana Guru, Ayyankali founded the Sadhu Jana Paripalana Sangam (Association for the Protection of the Poor) in 1907 which campaigned and raised funds to educate the lower caste Pulaya people.

5.4 Islamic Reforms

After the suppression of great revolt of 1857 Indian Muslims looked to Western culture with suspicion. The community feared that Western education, Western culture and Western ideas would endanger their religion. Therefore only a small section of Muslims accepted the new avenues for modern education. Consequently, Indian Muslims as a community lagged behind in comparison to the Hindu elite of various parts of India.

Sir Sayyid Ahmed Khan

As Indian Muslims steadily lost ground in education, in the public services and in general leadership in India, there was a realization that there was no alternative but to accept modern education if the community was to go on the path of progress.

The man who gave life and soul to it was Sir Sayyid Ahmed Khan (1817–1898). Born in Delhi into a noble Muslim family, Sayyid Ahmed Khan thought that lack of education, especially modern education, had harmed the Muslims greatly and kept them backward. He exhorted the Muslims to accept Western science and take up government services. He



Sayyid Ahmed Khan

founded a scientific society and translated many English books, especially science books into Urdu. He believed that the interest of the Muslims would be best served if they bonded with the British Government rather than pitch in with the rising nationalist movement. So he advised the Muslims to take to English education and to concentrate on it.

Aligarh Movement

Sayyid Ahmed Khan's movement, the "Aligarh movement," is so called because it was centred around the Aligarh Mohammedan Anglo-Oriental college founded by him in 1875, which is



Aligarh Muslim University

a landmark in the history of Indian Muslim education. The college was raised to the status of a university in 1920. Aligarh produced a huge body of intelligentsia over successive generations who played a key role in public life.

Deoband Movement

Deoband was a revivalist movement organized by the orthodox Muslim Ulema with the twin objectives of propagating the pure teachings of the Quran and the Hadith as well as encouraging the spirit of Jihad against the foreign and un-Islamic elements. The Ulema under the leadership of Muhammad Qasim Wanotavi (1832-80) and Rashid Ahmad Gangotri (1828-1905) founded the school at Deoband in the Saharanpur district of the U.P in 1866. The school curricula shut out English education and western culture. The instruction imparted was in original Islamic religion and the aim was moral and religious regeneration of the Muslim community. The

Deoband School did not prepare its students for government jobs but for the preaching of Islamic faith.

In politics, the Deoband School welcomed the formation of the Indian National Congress in 1885. In 1888 the Deoband Ulema issued a religious decree (fatwa) against Syed Ahmed Khan's Organisation called "The United Patriotic Association" and "The Muhammeden Anglo - Oriental Association." It is said the Deoband Ulema were mainly influenced by their determination to oppose Sir Syed Ahmed's activities.

Maulana Mahmud-ul-Hassan became the new Deoband leader. The Jamait-Ul-Ulema (council of theologians) led by him gave a concrete shape to Hassan's ideas of protection of the religious and political rights of the Muslims in the overall context of Indian unity.

5.5 Parsi Reform Movement

In the middle of the nineteenth century the reform activities of the educated Parsis (the Zoroastrians who had fled from Iran in the tenth century in the face of religious persecution) began in Mumbai. Furdunji Naoroji founded the Rahnumai Mazdayasnan Sabha (Parsis' Reform Society) in 1851. *Rast Goftar* (The Truth Teller) was the main voice of the movement. The leaders of the Sabha criticized elaborate ceremonies at betrothals, marriages and funerals. They opposed both infant marriage and the use of astrology. Behrramji Malabari organized a campaign for legislation against the practice of child marriage. The community produced many leaders such as Pherozeshah Mehta and Dinshaw Wacha who played a big role in the early Congress.

5.6 Sikh Reform Movement (Nirankaris and Namdharis)

The wave of reform movements did not leave any community untouched. Among the Sikhs of Punjab too there were attempts

to reform. Baba Dayal Das, founder of the Nirankari Movement, stressed the worship of god as Nirankar (formless). Rejection of idols, rejection of rituals associated with idolatry, reverence for the authority of Guru Nanak and of the Adi Granth formed the essence of his teachings. He reiterated the prohibition on meat-eating, and liquor consumption.

The Namdhari Movement, founded by Baba Ram Singh, was another socio-religious movement among the Sikhs. The Namdharis insisted on wearing the symbols of Sikhism except the kirpan (sword). Instead Baba Ram Singh wanted his followers to carry a lathi. It considered both men and women equal and accepted widow remarriage. It prohibited the dowry system and child marriage.

In the wake of the gathering influence of Arya Samaj and the Christian missionaries, the Singh Sabha of Amritsar was established. Its main objective was to restore the purity of Sikhism. With the support of British, it established Khalsa College for the Sikhs in Amritsar. Singh Sabha was a forerunner of Akali Movement.

5.7 Social Reformers of Tamilnadu

(a) Ramalinga Swamigal

Popularly known as Vallalar, Ramalinga Swamigal or Ramalinga Adigal (1823–1874), was born in Marudhur, a village near Chidambaram. After his father's death, his family moved to his brother's house at Chennai. Despite having no formal education he gained immense scholarship. Ramalinga emphasised the bonds of responsibility and compassion between living beings. He expressed the view that 'those who lack compassion for suffering beings are hard-hearted, their wisdom clouded'. He showed his compassion and mercy on all living beings including plants. This he called jeevakarunya.



He established the Samarasa Vedha Sanmarga Sangam in 1865 and it was renamed “Samarasa Suddha Sanmarga Satya Sanga” which means “Society for Pure Truth in Universal self-hood”. Ramalinga also established a free feeding house for everyone irrespective of caste at Vadalur (1867), in the wake of a terrible famine in south India in 1866. His voluminous songs were compiled and published under the title Thiruvartupa (Songs of Grace). His radical views deeply disturbed Saiva orthodoxy, who condemned his writings as Marutpa (songs of ignorance).



Ramalinga Adigal



Vadalur Satya Gnana Sabha

Ramalinga bore witness to hunger and poverty in the country: “I saw poor people, emaciated with hunger and terribly weary, going to every house, yet their hunger was not removed, and my heart suffered intensely. Those who suffer with relentless disease, I saw them in front of me and my heart trembled. I saw those people, poor and of unmatched honor, their hearts weary, and I grew weak.”

(b) Vaikunda Swamikal

Vaikunda Swami (1809–1851), one of the earliest crusaders for social justice in south India was born at Sasthan Koil Vilai, the present Samithoppu, a village near Kanyakumari. His original name Mudichudum Perumal was changed to Muthukutty by his parents due to objection raised by the upper caste Hindus. Muthukutti



Vaikunda Swamikal

had no opportunity to have any systematic school education but acquired knowledge of various religious texts. He preached the ideas of equality and advocated the rights of depressed class people in the face of stiff opposition from upper castes as well as the princely state of Travancore.

Vaikunda Swamikal criticised the rule of the British and the rule of Rajah of Travancore as the rule of White devils and Black devils respectively.

He visited Tiruchendur temple and experienced a new vision. Calling himself Vaikundar, he requested the people to give up all the irrelevant rites and rituals in their worship. His preaching’s against the prevailing religious order brought about a considerable change in the attitude of the lower caste people. In 1833, Vaikundar commenced his meditation at Samithoppu for the abolition of caste differences and social integration of the society. During this period, he led a life of a hermit.

In south Travancore, there were many restrictions on lower caste people such as what they could wear and not wear. At a time when there was prohibition on certain sections on wearing headgear he advocated the wearing of a turban in protest. It gave a sense of honour to the oppressed people and offered a spirit of self-respect. A new confidence was installed in the minds of his followers.

Like the other contemporary reform movements of India in the 19th century, Vaikunda Swamikal condemned the worship of idols. The low caste people had no temples for their gods, they erected small pyramids of mud or bricks in their honor, plastered and white-washed. He considered this kind of worship as an uncivilized custom. The people sacrificed goats, cocks and hens. He condemned these religious customs and campaigned against animal sacrifice.

Vaikunda Swamikal founded Samathuva Samajam to unite all the people of various castes. He organized inter-dining to accomplish it. Even though he was imprisoned by the Maharajah of Travancore, he never gave up his

principles. His followers called him respectfully as Ayya (father). His cult was also known as Ayya Vazhi (The Path of Ayya). His message emancipated the people from the unjust social customs and superstitious beliefs. His ideas are collected into a text called *Akila Thirattu*.

C. Iyothee Thassar

Pandithar Iyothee Thassar (1845–1914) was a radical Tamil scholar, writer, *siddha* medicine practitioner, journalist and socio-political activist. Born



Iyothithassar

in Chennai, he was fluent in Tamil, English, Sanskrit and Pali languages. He initiated a new knowledge practice by using journalism as a tool to make inroads into the print public sphere, which, was hitherto an upper caste domain. He campaigned for social justice and worked for the emancipation of the “untouchables” from the caste clutches. He worked for the construction of a casteless identity and castigated caste hegemony and untouchability. He considered education as an important tool for empowerment and became the driving force behind the establishment of several schools for the “untouchables” in Tamil Nadu.

Pandithar Iyothee Thassar founded the *Advaidananda Sabha* to raise the voice for the temple entry of the “untouchables”. In 1882, John Rathinam and Iyothee Thassar established a movement called, *Dravida Kazhagam* and launched a magazine called *Dravida Pandian* in 1885. He founded the *Dravida Mahajana Sabha* in 1891 and organised the First Conference of the association at Nilgiris. He started a weekly journal, *Oru Paisa Tamilan*, in 1907 and published it until his demise in 1914.

Pandithar Iyothee Thassar was disappointed with the Hindu dharma, which served as the basis for propagating and validating caste in Hindu society. Influenced by the Theosophist organizer, Colonel H.S. Olcott, he went to Sri Lanka in 1898 and converted to Buddhism. In the same year, he founded the Sakya Buddhist Society at Madras to construct the rational religious philosophy through Buddhist religion. He argued that the so-called untouchables were originally Buddhists who were stigmatized by Brahminism. He further constructed an alternative history through the interpretation of Tamil literature and folk traditions of Tamil from a Buddhist standpoint. In addition, he stated that the revival of Buddhism could liberate the people from the evil of caste that afflicted the Hindu society. He called the “untouchables” *Sathi Petham Atra Dravidar* (Casteless Dravidians) and urged them to register as casteless Dravidians in the Census.

SUMMARY

- A brief account of Raja Rammohan Roy’s initiatives for social and cultural reforms has been provided.
- The foundation of Brahmo Samaj by Ram mohan Roy and the role played by Maharishi Debendranath Tagore and Keshab Chandra Sen in carrying forward the Brahmo Samaj activities after Roy’s death are discussed.
- The contribution of M.G. Ranade and Prarthana Samaj with which he was associated are examined.
- The attempts made by Arya Samaj under the aegis of Swami Dayanad Saraswati to reform Hinduism as well as to win converts to the Hindu fold are highlighted.
- The radical reformer Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar and his strivings for women’s cause are described.

- The role of Ramakrishna Paramahansa and his disciple Swami Vivekananda in the transformation of Hinduism is explained.
- The work of Theosophical Society with Annie Besant as its president is explored along with Aligarh Movement spearheaded by Sayyid Ahmad Khan.
- Reform movements among Parsis and Sikhs are outlined.
- The work done by Jyotiba Phule in Maharashtra and Iyothethe Thassar in Tamilnadu to obtain social justice for the marginalized and the deprived sections of the population is reviewed.
- The social protest movements in Kerala led by Narayana Guru and Ayyankali, and the reform movements in Tamil Nadu involving Ramalinga Adigal and Ayya Vaikundar are sketched out.

A-Z GLOSSARY

Alleged	stated but not proved	சொல்லப்படும்
Ecstatic	in a state of extreme happiness	பரவசமான
Voluminous	bulky	அதிகப் பரிமாணமுள்ள
Reiterated	repeat a statement for emphasis	வலியுறுத்துதல்
Idolatry	the practice of worshipping idols	உருவ வழிபாடு
Tract	a small booklet	சிறு நூல்
Revelation	disclosure	திருவெளிப்பாடு
Crematorium	a place where a dead person's body is burnt	இடுகாடு
Subjugation	the act of bringing something under control	அடிமைப்படுத்துதல்
Scriptures	the sacred writings	திருமறை நூல்கள்



EXERCISE

I. Choose the correct answer



- In which year was Sati abolished?
 - 1827
 - 1829
 - 1826
 - 1927
- What was the name of the Samaj founded by Dayanand Saraswati?
 - Arya Samaj
 - Brahmo Samaj
 - Prarthana Samaj
 - Adi Brahmo Samaj
- Whose campaign and work led to the enactment of Widow Remarriage Reform Act of 1856?
 - Iswarchandra Vidyasagar
 - Raja Rammohan Roy
 - Annie Besant
 - Jyotiba Phule
- Whose voice was *Rast Gofar*?
 - Parsi Movement
 - Aligarh Movement
 - Ramakrishna Mission
 - Dravida Mahajana Sabha
- Who was the founder of Namdhari Movement?
 - Baba Dayal Das
 - Baba Ramsingh
 - Gurunanak
 - Jyotiba Phule



6. Who was Swami Shradhananda?
 - a) a disciple of Swami Vivekananda
 - b) one who caused a split in the Brahmo Samaj of India
 - c) one who caused a split in the Arya Samaj
 - d) founder of Samathuva Samajam.
7. Who was the founder of Widow Remarriage Association?
 - a) M.G. Ranade
 - b) Devendranath Tagore
 - c) Jyotiba Phule
 - d) Ayyankali
8. Who was the author of the book *Satyarthaprakash*?
 - a) Dayananda Saraswathi
 - b) Vaikunda Swamy
 - c) Annie Besant
 - d) Swami Shradanatha

II. Fill in the blanks

1. _____ founded the Samarasa Vedha Sanmarga Sangam.
2. The founder of Poona Sarvajanik Sabha was _____.
3. Satyashodak Samaj was launched by _____.
4. Gulumgir was written by _____.
5. *Satyarthaprakash* enumerates the positive principles of _____.
6. Ramakrishna Mission was established by _____.
7. _____ was the forerunner of Akali Movement.
8. _____ brought tremendous changes in the caste structure in Kerala.
9. *Oru paisa Tamilan* was started by _____.

III. Choose the correct statement

1. i) Raja Rammohan Roy preached monotheism
ii) He encouraged idolatry
iii) He published tracts condemning social evils

iv) Raja Rammohan Roy was supported by Governor General William Bentinck

- a) i) is correct
 - b) i) and ii) are correct
 - c) i), ii) and iii) are correct
 - d) i), iii) and iv) are correct
2. i) Prarthana Samaj was founded by Dr. Atma Ram Pandurang
ii) Prarthana Samaj encouraged inter-dining and inter-caste marriage
iii) Jyotiba Phule worked for the upliftment of men.
iv) Prarthana Samaj had its origin in the Punjab.
 - a) i) is correct
 - b) ii) is correct
 - c) i) and ii) are correct
 - d) iii) and iv) are correct
 3. i) Ramakrishna Mission was actively involved in social causes such as education, health care, relief in time of calamities.
ii) Ramakrishna emphasised the spiritual union with god through ecstatic practices.
iii) Ramakrishna established the Ramakrishna Mission
iv) Ramakrishna opposed the Partition of Bengal
 - a) i) is correct b) i) and ii) are correct
 - c) iii) is correct d) iv) alone correct
 4. **Assertion:** Jyotiba Phule opened orphanages and homes for widows
Reason: Jyotiba Phule opposed child marriage and supported widow remarriage
 - a) Assertion is correct but reason is not apt to the assertion
 - b) Assertion is correct and the reason is apt to the assertion
 - c) Both are wrong
 - d) Reason is correct but assertion is irrelevant



IV. Match the following

- | | | |
|---|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| | | Widows |
| 1 | Ayyavazhi | - Remarriage Reform Act |
| 2 | Thiruvarutpa | - Nirankari |
| 3 | Baba Dayal Das | - Adi Bramo Samaj |
| 4 | Iswarchandra Vidyasagar | - Vaikunda Swamigal |
| 5 | Debendranath | - Songs of Grace |

V) Answer briefly

1. Mention the four articles of faith laid down by Maharishi Debendranath Tagore?
2. Discuss Mahadev Govind Ranade's contribution to social reforms.
3. Assess the role of Ayyankali in fighting for the cause of "untouchables."
4. Write a note on reforms of Ramalinga Adigal.
5. What was the impact of Swami Vivekananda's activist ideology?
6. What are the differences between Reformist Movements and Revival Movements?
7. List the social evils eradicated by Brahmo Samaj.
8. Highlight the work done by Jyotiba Phule for the welfare of the poor and the marginalized.
9. What was the impact of Iyothee Thassar's visit to Sri Lanka.

VI) Answer all the questions given under each caption

1. Aligarh Movement.
 - i) What is the main aim of this Movement?
 - ii) Who is considered the soul of this Movement?
 - iii) Why were English books translated into Urdu?
 - iv) Name the college which was later raised to the status of a University?
2. Ramalinga Adigal.
 - i) What is Jeevakarunya?
 - ii) What are the Songs of Grace?

- iii) Point out the major contribution of Samarasa Vedha Sanmarga Sathya Sangam?
 - iv) Where did he establish his free feeding house?
3. Deoband Movement.
 - i) Who were the organizers of this Movement?
 - ii) What were the two main objectives of the Movement?
 - iii) Who founded the school at Deoband?.
 - iv) Against whom the fatwa was issued by Deoband Ulema?

VII) Answer in detail

1. Compare and contrast the contributions of Revivalist Movements with that of Reform Movements.
2. Discuss the circumstances that led to the Reform movements of 19th century.
3. Evaluate the contributions of Ramakrishna Paramahansa and Swami Vivekananda to regenerate Indian society.
4. Write an essay on the role played by the 19th century reformers towards the cause of Women.

VIII) Activity

1. Role-play by students on Reformers and their Reforms of the 19th century India.
2. Debate Social evils of 19th century with those of present day.
3. Students can write an assignment on the present state of the reform organizations discussed in the lesson.



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INTERNET RESOURCES



ICT CORNER

Through this activity you will know about world historic events through Interactive timeline.



Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Type '**History of modern India**' in the search box
- Explore the Timeline Events with Pictorial Descriptions.

