

CFMUNESCO
Civiale del Friuli
Model United Nations UNESCO

1919-1938
TIME FOR PEACE



**HISTORICAL
COMMITTEE
BOOKLET
2018**

Historical Committee Booklet

Part 1- Work in the Historical Committee

A Historical Committee is a specialized committee that will be part of CFMUNESCO 2018.

Its rules of procedure are slightly different from those of other MUN committees and so this Booklet is necessary to future delegates to understand them well.

1. How will the Historical committee work?

A Historical Committee is a committee focused on historical events, which occurred in past times. For this reason, throughout the conference, delegates will have to pretend they are taking a step back into the past.

The discussions will cover the period after the end of the Great War, from the Paris Peace Conference in 1919 until the affirmation of totalitarian regimes in 1938.

The assembly will simulate the meetings of the League of Nations, the United Nations's ancestor.

Delegates will discuss about real crises that endangered the stability of our world in the above mentioned period. The crises discussed occurred in different years and, during the debate, they will be discussed following their chronological order.

Each delegate will not represent a country in general, as it happens in other MUN committees, but a character, a sovereign or a prime minister, that guided a state during the period of time which the assembly will work on. Delegates will have to imitate the behavior of that person and to operate always keeping in mind the real decisions (or plausible ones, if finding the real decisions is impossible) taken by their countries in a precise occasion.

Delegates have to follow the reality of facts that occurred and their speeches and actions must reflect the policy of their countries in those years. Every initiative of delegates to rewrite the history with fantastic and personal proposals will be stopped by Chairs.

2. Rules of procedure

The work of the Assembly will be slightly different from the one of other UN committees.

The purpose of the Assembly is to create, at the end of the conference, a final treaty, a big document that will chronologically trace the work of the assembly during the three days of the conference and so the progress of history during the period discussed, from 1919 to 1938.

As delegates do not know exactly which events will be taken into consideration, they will not arrive at the committee with already written resolutions or clauses.

During the debate, some crises will be presented to delegates and they will try to face them the way their Countries did in past times. They will send the Chairs some drafts containing proposals that will be discussed and voted by the Assembly. If the drafts are passed, they will become part of the final treaty. Then, some amendments can be proposed by delegates to change, strike or add some information to the clauses of the treaty.

During the time of debate a form of Moderated Caucus will be used together with short periods of Unmoderated Caucus.

During a Moderated Caucus each delegate can speak in front of the Assembly. Unlike in the formal debate, delegates will not speak from the podium, but they will just need to stand and speak from their seats. Moreover, they will not need to begin their speeches with the expression: “Honorable Chairs, fellow Delegates...”, in order to have a smoother debate. Unlike in the usual Moderated Caucus, a short time for points of information (questions) will be granted after every speech.

During an Unmoderated Caucus delegates can leave their seats, speak, share ideas and write drafts in groups with other delegates.

To move from a Moderated to an Unmoderated Caucus or viceversa, a delegate can raise his/her placard and propose a “Motion for a Moderated/Unmoderated Caucus” and state the total time of the Caucus. The motion will be voted and, if it passes, the Committee will move to the new form of Caucus. The shift to a different form of Caucus can also be decided by Chairs if needed.

Every decision that is to be taken in the Committee must be voted. As the assembly will recreate the League of Nations, in which some states were present just for a short time, these states will be able to vote just for the period of time in which they were part of this organization. For this reason, at the beginning of every session Chairs will clarify which countries are just “present” and cannot vote, and which are “present and voting” and can vote for that session. Each delegate will have two different placards, one to use when he/she is “present” and one to use when he/she is “present and voting”. At Chairs’ discretion, a state can receive the right to vote for a specific session, even if it was not part of the League of Nations in the historical moment discussed.

1. **Characteristics of a perfect HC delegate**

As the Historical Committee is focused on history, delegates must love this subject.

This is also a very small and specialized committee and so delegates, who want to be part of it, should have previous MUN experience.

They also have to be flexible, curious, brave and open to new experiences.

Above all, delegates must cooperate and love working in groups, because the purpose is not to prevail against the others, but to find a solution together and together try to historically reconstruct the discussed period of time.

2. **Chairs**

Chairs are the maximum authorities in the committee.

They are present to make sure that all the rules of procedures are respected by delegates.

They control and moderate the debate, trying to guarantee a smooth activity.

They have the authority to decide which delegate will make a speech or a point of information and can accept or reject motions proposed by delegates.

They can decide if a draft submitted by a delegate should be discussed on the grounds that it must follow the historical events and the policy of the country which submitted it.

They can stop the speech of a delegate if he/she does not respect historical events thus bringing the discussion back to the correct line.

3. Language

English is the only working language allowed in CFMUNESCO 2018, as it is the international language of all MUN conferences. English should be formal and dialectal forms and slangs are not allowed.

Delegates must speak clearly, keeping a polite behavior, and should not offend any other person in the room.

Unlike in the other committees and to better imitate the character they have been assigned, delegates will have to speak in 1st person singular, and not in 3rd person singular or 1st person plural.

4. Dress code

In the Historical Committee in CFMUNESCO 2018 the delegates' dress code must resemble the one of real UN delegates. An elegant western dress code is demanded and every folkloristic and sport outfit is forbidden.

5. Delegates' preparation

Delegates have to work passionately to find as much information as possible regarding the period of time they will work on even becoming part of it.

They do not have to learn the events from the point of view of the state they belong to, but from the point of view of the governor, and so of the country they will represent.

Before the beginning of CFMUNESCO 2018, delegates will have to send to the Chairs a Policy Statement, regarding the situation of the country they represent, to attest their preparation for the debate. Policy statements will be focused on the outcome of the Great War and the Paris Peace Conference, analyzing the consequences of the treaties proclaimed in that occasion.

If all the above formalities have frightened you, do not worry! During the last day of CFMUNESCO 2018, if there is enough time, delegates will have the opportunity to debate more freely and to show their creativity in an *ad hoc* activity.

6. Useful links

- <http://teimun.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/TEIMUNHistoricalCrisisRoPs.pdf>
- www.unausa.org/global-classroom-model-un/how-to-participate/model-un-preparation/caucusing
- www.unausa.org/global-classroom-model-un/how-to-participate/getting-started/model-un-glossary

Part 2 - HISTORICAL CONTEXT

AFTERMATH OF THE GREAT WAR

Paris Peace Treaties

Even if the fightings of the Great War cease at the end of 1918, it is necessary to establish a long-lasting peace among the nations involved. For this reason a Peace Conference is held in Paris on 18th January 1919 and lasts for a year, in order to discuss the punishments for the states that lost the war and to create alliances among countries.

During this Conference 5 treaties are signed, one for every nation that lost the conflict:

- Treaty of Versailles with Germany
- Treaty of Trianon with Hungary
- Treaty of Sèvres with the Ottoman Empire
- Treaty of Saint-Germain-en-Laye with Austria
- Treaty of Neuilly-sur-Seine with Bulgaria

These countries involved suffer for the punishments, to which they are submitted. Above all Germany is considered the only responsible for initiating the Great War and has to pay an enormous amount of money to repair, its navy and army are dramatically reduced and its territories limited. The Polish Corridor is created to give Poland a port on the sea, but this divides the German territory in two parts, creating disorders.

Moreover, the treaties mean the break-up of the Ottoman and Austro-Hungarian Empires and the territories subtracted to the losers, in some cases, become new countries for peoples that were under the control of the Central Empires before. These newborn states are: Austria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes (later Yugoslavia), Turkey and Iraq. However, the problem of nationality is still deeply felt, because these newborn states are inhabited by different ethnic minorities.

League of Nations

The League of Nations is an intergovernmental organization that is founded on 10th January 1920 in Geneva and is first proposed by the USA President Wilson in his *Fourteen Points*. This is the first organization that aims to maintain a global peace, avoiding the spread of new conflicts, standing above the interest of single countries and using diplomacy instead of weapons. The states which do not respect its statements are punished with economic or military sanctions. Some of the problems discussed regard unsolved questions after the Great War, as the destiny of the Saar and Upper Silesia, new aggressions perpetrated by Italy in Abyssinia and Japan in China and the Spanish Civil War.

However, this organization does not succeed in its aims and cannot avoid the break out of new conflicts and the advent of dictatorships. Even if soon about every nation in the world joins it, it is abandoned during the 1930s by all the countries that become belligerent and are ruled by totalitarian regimes. The main causes of its failure are the absence of the USA, which after the Great War decide not to be involved in European troubles anymore, and the lack of a military force, which could be used against the ones, who violate the decisions of the League.

Post-war crises

Europe is completely on its knees after the Great War. Territories are devastated, millions of people have died for the conflict and for the Spanish Flu pandemic and economy is in crisis. In fact many states have to pay war debts and convert the industrial production of weapons to a normal

production. Inflation, layoff, strikes and protests spread throughout Europe, while governments have to deal with the foreign debts to the USA, which financed some states during the Great War. USA is exactly the country, which the whole Europe will become dependent on, during this period.

After the Great War nations see the birth of new ideas and of new kinds of societies. The masses first enter into history, after men fought together into trenches, and a collective consciousness appears. Trade unions and political parties become stronger and different classes affirm their rights and demands.

However, dissatisfaction is widespread and many aim to different political solutions, which range from revolutionary to authoritarian ones. A general unrest explodes between 1919 and 1920 and this makes moderate middle class, worried about the break out of a revolution, vote for extreme right-wing parties, that promise to maintain a social order. Apart from old liberal countries, as France and UK, all Europe is invested by a huge general crisis, which leads to the advent of authoritarian regimes and dictatorships.

The role of women

The role of women in society changes with the Great War and they start to fight in order to gain more power in politics and in the family. During the war they substituted men in factories and developed economic independence. Even if, coming back from the battlefields, men return to their previous jobs, a social revolution has already begun and will not stop. From now on, many states will grant the right to vote to women, starting from UK in 1918 and Germany the following year.

The spread of communism and the Red Biennium

The power of the workers increases day by day: they are stronger, better protected by trade unions and more involved in politics. After the Russian Revolution of 1917, which showed the power of workers and peasants against the old empire, European working classes hope for a same destiny for their countries: they want to abolish the private property and to establish a dictatorship of the proletariat. Lenin in Russia tries to export communist parties and revolution all over the world. This makes industrialists and land owners fear a possible subversion of the social order in their countries and worry about the safety of their properties and affairs.

The first two years after the end of the Great War are known as the Red Biennium and are characterized by strikes of the working classes, in order to demand reforms. Workers' assemblies, based on the model of Russian soviet, spread. In Germany these assemblies impose their conditions in politics and a period of revolutionary attempts starts. In Hungary in 1919 the socialists and communists form a republic based on the Soviet model. However, none of these attempts to subvert the system succeeds. In Germany the army kills and arrests the leaders of the protests and in Hungary Miklos Horthy leads a counter-revolution and establishes the first authoritarian regime after the Great War. In Italy the end of the insurrections opens the door to the rise of Fascism.

DICTATORSHIPS AND DEMOCRACIES

In the majority of European countries the post-war crises, the repressions of communist initiatives and the fragility of the parliamentary system help the rise of totalitarian regimes.

In Hungary, in 1919, the right-wing dictatorships of Horthy abolishes political and trade-union freedom and eliminates opposition. Mussolini rises to power in Italy in 1922 with a coup d'état and soon after organizes a dictatorial regime, which will be of inspiration for other countries. Turkey,

from 1923, with the advent of Atatürk, experiences a totalitarian regime, which aims to a westernization and secularization of the state.

Between the Twenties and Thirties many nations deal with totalitarianisms: Bulgaria, Portugal, Yugoslavia, Austria, Germany, Poland, Greece, Spain and Russia (communist dictatorship).

France and England are almost the only countries with a stable government, even if unrests and economical crises are felt also here.

COLONIAL STRUGGLE FOR INDEPENDENCE

After the Great War, movements for the independence of the colonies from European domination spread throughout the world. They are filled by the ideals of democracy, colonists learned fighting for Western countries during the war and by the hope, these people have to be rewarded with freedom for their sacrifices during the fights. Moreover, the Soviet Union proclaims its will of seeing freedom granted to the “slaves of Africa and Asia”.

During these years UK decides to reorganize its colonial powers. It creates the Commonwealth, a free association of independent communities, tied with Britain by economic and political bounds. In Iraq, UK holds the mandate from the League of Nations and controls the oils wells. Also Palestine is under its mandate, during the start of the bloody conflict between Arabs and Jewish for this territory. The most critical situation is represented by India, which is led to independence by Gandhi. Even if his protests are peaceful, they are immediately repressed with violence and arrests.

French reaction to independent movements in its colonies is even stricter and harsher than the British one, as they think that colonies are fundamental in the establishment of a “great France” .

USA, with the lack of European investments in Latin America following the Great War, develops strong bounds with these southern states, monopolizing their economies and influencing their oligarchies.

THE WALL STREET CRASH AND THE *NEW DEAL*

USA's contradictions

Between 1922 and 1928 USA enjoys a period of economical growth, “The Roaring Twenties”. Industrial production increases, mass consumption is promoted and new technologies develop. An illusion of infinite growth spreads. However, USA wants to defend its wealth and keeps on being far from European affairs. In this atmosphere of closure, a harsh racism against other religions and races develops, culminating in the creation of the Ku Klux Klan.

Meanwhile, few people notice that USA is manufacturing more than it can sell or use, leading to a market saturation. Industrial production slows down, but the stocks continue to rise and do not correspond anymore to the real value of the goods, creating a speculative bubble. On 24th October 1929 the New York Stock Exchange collapses representing catastrophic consequences for the population. The effects are reflected on the credit system, obliging banks to close down. Industries cannot get credits for investments, reduce production and lay off workers.

Crisis in Europe

This immense crisis arrives to Europe and lasts long. In order to avoid a situation similar to the one of the USA, UK abandons liberalism and creates the system of Imperial Preference, privileging British products on the colonial markets. In Italy the protectionism is enforced, helping the rise of Mussolini's autarchy. Germany is still weak after the Great War and cannot promptly react to the

American crisis. For this reason it follows the destiny of the USA, with bank collapses and the inability to pay war reparations.

The New Deal

In 1932 the USA elections are won by Roosevelt, who immediately tries to recover the situation, relaunching business investments and people's consumption. Many reforms in various fields, as agriculture and industry, are carried out, pensions and welfare system are improved. Slowly USA tries to recover from the crisis, but effectively the number of unemployed is still high in 1938.

TENSIONS THROUGHOUT THE WORLD

Japan

Japan is not happy about the decision taken by England and France in the Paris Peace Conference. In fact he receives just one-half of the German territories, that were promised him at the beginning of the war by the pacts with UK, France and Italy. Moreover, in Paris he asks to create a clause regarding racial equality, that is rejected by Britain. This makes Japan abandon the conference, distancing itself from the winners and starting to get closer to Germany. With 1929's crisis Japan's economic situation gets critical, as its market is based on exports. In 1931 it decides to conquer new territories to recover from the crisis and looks to China. In 1937 the invasion begins, led by a new right-wing authoritarian government.

Germany

Germany, led by Hitler since 1933, looks to an enlargement of territories, to a so called "vital space" for German people, in order to impose a new European order dominated by Great Germany. Hitler rearms his country and refuses to respect the Paris Peace Treaties. He focuses the industrial production on weapons and signs a treaty with UK to rebuild his navy.

In 1935, after a referendum, the Saar region goes back in the hands of Germany. The same year a conference is held in Stresa by France, UK and Italy in order to discuss about the Führer's threat. The purpose of this meeting is to maintain Austrian independence from Germany and to make all present countries promise that they will be ready to react, if Hitler attempts to modify or reject the Paris Peace Treaties. However, the covenants result totally ineffective.

Italy

Mussolini, after his rise to power becomes the guarantor of the European order. Thanks to his high reputation, in 1935 he decides to proceed undisturbed in the invasion of Ethiopia. This episode links him to Hitler and in 1936 they sign the Rome-Berlin Axis, in which they demonstrate to share the same anti-bolshevism and to have common interests in the Balkans. The year later this alliance is extended to Japan, with the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis.

Appeasement

The appeasement is a policy taken particularly by UK and France towards Hitler and Mussolini, after their rise to power. It is based on a series of concessions that UK, above all, grants to these dictators, hoping that they will stop their aim of conquests and trying to avoid another war as the Great one. Famous episodes of appeasement are: the pact between UK and Germany, in order to allow the latter to rebuild its navy; the Abyssinian War in which the sanctions against Mussolini are ineffective; the Spanish Civil War, when the majority of Western countries follows the non-

intervention principle and the Munich Agreement, in which UK, France and Italy decide to cede the Czechoslovakian Sudetenland to Hitler, following his request.

This policy is totally ineffective and makes the Führer understand that he does not have any strong opposition by other countries.

Soviet Union

Soviet Union is alarmed by the rise to power of right-wing dictatorships throughout Europe and decides to cooperate with Western powers to tackle them. In 1935 it decides to build popular fronts in Europe, that reunite all left-wing parties. In Spain and France they win the elections in 1936 and a period of social reforms starts.

Spanish Civil War

After the 1936's Popular Front victory in Spain a wave of protests and insurrections begins among clergy, landowners and conservatives. The far-right forces organize a coup d'état, led by Francisco Franco and supported by German and Italian air forces. Spain seeks the help of the socialist Blum of France, which decides not to cooperate, in order to avoid a conflict with UK. England fears a victory of the left-wing and, with France and other states, signs the Non-Intervention Agreement in 1936. On the other hand, the Soviet Union helps the republican government. The outcome of the war is now still unknown.

Anschluss

The annexation of Austria to Germany has been desired for years by many Austrians and, above all, by Hitler. Preceded by an intense propaganda, it is actuated on March, 12th 1938 under the Austrian Chancellor Seyss-Inquart, a Hitler's man, after having eliminated all Austrian anti-German politicians. The European community does not respond to this act.

Munich Agreement

On 29th September 1938, Mussolini, Hitler, Chamberlain (UK) and Daladier (France) meet in Munich to decide for the future of the Sudetenland, a German speaking region in Czechoslovakia, that Hitler declares "German by nature". UK and France are too afraid of a conflict to refuse his requests and allow Hitler to occupy this territory. Czechoslovakia is now defenseless and the Führer is stronger than ever before.

Part 3 - CHRONOLOGY

- 1. Beginning of the signing of the Paris conference held from 18 January 1919 to 21 January 1920**, in which delegates are asked to read their political statements at the end of the conference.
- 2. The birth of the Weimar Republic - 11 August 1919.** This is the name used to refer to the German Reich in the period between 1919 and 1933. The first attempt to establish a liberal democracy in Germany was a period of great tension and internal conflict as well as a serious economic crisis, which ended with the rise to power of Adolf Hitler and the German National Socialist Workers' Party in 1933.
- 3. November 1920: The First Meeting Of The League Of Nations** The Assembly of the League of Nations meets for the first time in Geneva, Switzerland. The US is notably absent, the Senate having voted against joining the League in November 1919.
- 4. Treaty of Rapallo 12 November 1920** (an agreement with which Italy and the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes consensually established the boundaries of the two Kingdoms and their respective sovereignties, in mutual respect of the principles of nationality and self-determination of peoples)
- 5. November 1921: The Washington Conference Is Held** The United States convenes the Washington Conference, attended by Britain, France, Italy, Belgium, the Netherlands, China, Japan, and Portugal. The Conference results in a naval armaments treaty that sets a ratio for tonnage of capital ships (over 10,000 tons, with guns bigger than eight inches) for Great Britain, the US, Japan, France, and Italy.
- 6. March on Rome 28 October 1922** (was an armed demonstration organized by the National Fascist Party, led by Benito Mussolini, whose success resulted in the rise to power of the party itself in Italy)
- 7. 30 October 1922: Benito Mussolini Is Made Italian Premier** King Victor Emmanuel declares Mussolini premier in an attempt to head off violent conflict between the Fascists and the Communists.
- 8. 1 December 1925: The Locarno Pacts Are Signed** The Locarno Pacts are signed in efforts to stabilize relations with Germany and its neighbors. The pacts usher in a period of peace and prosperity.
- 9. Crisis of 1929** (it was a serious economic and financial crisis that upset the world economy at the end of the twenties, with strong repercussions during the first years of the following decade)
- 10. 24 August 1929: Hebron Massacre** - it was the murder of some Arabs by 67 Jews in Hebron, the most populous city in the West Bank then under the British mandate of Palestine.
- 11. March of the salt from March 12 to April 5, 1930** (was a non-violent demonstration that took place from March 12 to April 5, 1931 in India by the Mahatma Gandhi)
- 12. February - July 1932: The Final League Of Nations Disarmament Conference Is Held** The last major League of Nations-sponsored disarmament conference meets from February to July 1932 at Geneva, with 60 nations in attendance, including the United States. However, this conference, like it's predecessors, fails to secure any agreement, and organized disarmament remains an unaccomplished goal.
- 13. Fire of the Reichstag of February 27, 1933** (it was an arson in the Reichstag building in Berlin, the event is considered crucial for the affirmation of Nazism in Germany)
- 14. Ascent to power by Adolf Hitler - 3 March 1933.** In an attempt to reel in the chaos of the German government, President Paul von Hindenburg declares Hitler chancellor, the first major step in Hitler's ascent to dictatorship.
- 15. The night of the long knives - June 30, 1934** was the purge of the SS that took place in Germany by order of Adolf Hitler between June 30 and July 1, 1934, involving the heads of the SA gathered in the town of Bad Wiessee
- 16. 9 October 1934** - Alexander I of Yugoslavia is murdered. It was the first reordereed murder in history
- 17. War of Ethiopia from 3 October 1935 to 5 May 1936.** Second Italian-Ethiopian war which saw the Kingdom of Italy and the Empire of Ethiopia stand in opposition

- 18. Nuremberg race laws of September 15, 1935** (during the annual Nazi party congress in Nuremberg, Germany, Hitler promulgates the racial laws, known as Nuremberg Laws from the city from which they were issued)
- 19. 17 July 1936: The Spanish Nationalists Begin The Spanish Civil War** Generals Goded, Mola, and Francisco Franco lead troops in rebellion against the republic, sparking the Spanish Civil War.
- 20. 24 October 1936: Rome-Berlin axis** - it means the agreement that was stipulated between Italy and Germany on October 24, 1936. It is a formal pact that has a great political value in the Europe of the '30s: always divided because of the Austrian question and the other conflicting powers European countries, after this pact Italy and Germany are allied on many fronts.
- 21. 25 november 1936** : Anti-comintern Pact - it's a Political pact concluded by Germany and Japan "against the communist disintegrating work". Later they joined Italy (1937), Manciukuo (1939), Hungary (1939), Spain (1939).
- 22. Bombardment of Guernica of 26 April 1937** (it was an air raid carried out by the Legion Condor with the support of the Legionary Aviation, during the Spanish Civil War, which hit hard the Basque town of the same name)
- 23. 13 March 1938: Anschluss** - annexation of Austria to Nazi Germany to form "The Great Germany"
- 24. Munich Conference of 29 September 1938** (the Munich conference and agreement indicates an international meeting held between 29 and 30 September 1938, among the heads of government of the United Kingdom, France, Germany and Italy)

STATES	TOTALITARIANISM OR NOT
Japan	Yes with Hirohito
Austria	Yes from the Anschluss 1938
Yugoslavia	Yes from Alessandro I 1929
United States of America	no
United Kingdom	no
Soviet Union	Yes from Stalin 1922
Hungary	Yes from Horthy 1932
Portugal	Yes from Salazar 1932
Greece	Yes from Metaxas 1936
France	no
Italy	Yes from Mussolini 1922
Germany	Yes from Hitler 1933
Bulgaria	Yes from Cankov 1923
Czechoslovakia	no
Poland	no
Spain	Yes from Primo Rivera 1923
Turkey	Yes with Mustafà Kemal
Kingdom of Iraq	no

Part 4- Nations and Characters represented

List of Nations

Here is the list of the 20 Entities represented in CFMUNESCO Historical Committee; each delegate will impersonate one of them:

1. Empire of Japan
2. Palestine Zionist Executive (-1929), then Jewish Agency for Israel
3. Republic of Austria (1918-1934), then Federal State of Austria
4. Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes (1918-1929), then Kingdom of Yugoslavia (1929-)
5. United States of America
6. United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
7. British Commonwealth-British India
8. Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic
9. Kingdom of Hungary
10. The Portuguese Empire (-1933), then Estado Novo (New State)
11. Kingdom of Greece (1832-1924/ 1935- 1973), Second Hellenic Republic (1924–1935)
12. French Republic
13. Kingdom of Italy
14. Weimar Republic (-1933), then Nazi Germany
15. Kingdom of Bulgaria
16. Czechoslovak Republic
17. Republic of Poland
18. Kingdom of Spain (-1931), then Spanish Republic
19. Republic of Turkey
20. Kingdom of Iraq

In the following pages you will find a short summarize for each of these entities. Since in the period we are focusing on there have been often changes in governments, we decided to list them in alphabetical order by using their geographical names.

AUSTRIA

Wilhelm Miklas was born in 1872 in Krems, in Lower Austria. In those years the situation of the territory is tangled. After the Great War the new state of German-Austria is created from the ashes of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The National Assembly resolves unanimously that the newborn state will be a democratic republic and a component part of the German republic. Many plebiscites are held throughout the country and they result favorably for the annexation with Germany. However, the Treaty of Saint Germain-en-Laye, signed in the Paris Peace Conference, prohibits such a union without the consent of the League of Nations and obliges the country to be called "Republic of Austria". Moreover, after the Great War the economic stability of the country is in danger and a loan is secured through the League of Nations. In return Austria has to promise to remain independent for at least 20 years. For this reason many factions are present, some in favor of the Anschluss (annexation of Austria to Germany) and some against, and there is an endless conflict among them.

Miklas is a rare opponent of German nationalism and declares himself against a closer connection with the Weimar Republic. In 1919 he becomes state secretary and from 1923 to 1928 he is the speaker of the National Council. The same year he is elected President and tries to reconcile all the factions, granting more power to himself, but remaining independent from Germany. However, economic dissatisfaction makes more people vote for the Austrian Nazi Party.

During 1933 the German propaganda in favor of the Anschluss increases and this makes the government fear an attack. Austria tries to reach support by Fascist Italy and Hungary, as French and British help appears ineffective. Meanwhile, at home, the conflict among the parties increases and the parliament cannot solve the situation. Its self-elimination is declared by the Chancellor Dollfuss, who organizes a self-coup, that allows him to rule by emergency decrees. Civil war follows in 1934. After four days of fightings the Chancellor Dollfuss wins. All the parties are banned except the Fatherland Front, that unites all conservative parties. The name "Republic" is removed and the country is called the Federal State of Austria. Miklas declares a violation of the constitution, but does not firmly oppose the actions of the government.

The Italo-German alliance of 1936 leaves Austria in isolation and fear. Germany promises to respect Austrian sovereignty and, in return, Austria acknowledges itself as "a German state." The agreement leaves Austria open to Nazi infiltration. Miklas understands that none of the European states will help him, because they all fear a new war opposing Hitler and decides to challenge him alone. In 1938 a plebiscite is declared, in order to decide for the future of the country, but promptly Hitler imposes to appoint Seyss-Inquart, the spokesman of Austrian Nazis, as Chancellor. Miklas is strongly against, but he is not able to propose a non-Nazi candidate. The same day he capitulates and Seyss-Inquart becomes the Austrian Chancellor.

Arthur Seyss-Inquart was born in 1892 in Bohemia. He is one of the leaders to the Austrian Nazi Party and is appointed Chancellor of Austria on 11th March 1938 by Germany. The day after his designation, he explicitly asks German troops to occupy Austria. They invade the country without meeting resistance and the Austrian forces are greeted as heroes. On March 13, Seyss-Inquart welcomes the Anschluss, declared by Germany. After the Anschluss the offices of Chancellor and President stop to exist. A plebiscite is held in Austria and records a vote of 99% in favor of Hitler. Austria is completely absorbed into Germany and renamed Ostmark (Eastern Realm), with Seyss-Inquart as its Governor and Hitler's representative. UK, France and USA are shocked by the actions perpetrated by Hitler, but they do not stop him effectively. Stalin from Russia asks the whole West to stop the German threat.

Immediately after the invasion, Seyss-Inquart imposes to arrest many leaders of the anti-Nazi Austrian political parties and political opponents, especially communists and socialists. He is particularly cruel with Jewish and forces them to exile. He is a strong political man, always supporting Hitler's decisions.

Miklas (1919-March 1938)

Against Anschluss, however he cannot stop the will of government and people to get closer to Germany. Austria is isolated

Seyss-Inquart (March 1938- March 1938)

Hitler's man, leads Austria through the Anschluss, against Jewish

BULGARIA

Boris III of Bulgaria, (born Jan. 30, 1894, Sofia, Bulgaria) is King of Bulgaria from 1918 to 1943, and during the last five years of his reign he leads a thinly royal dictatorship.

The son of Ferdinand I of Bulgaria and Maria Luisa of Bourbon-Parma, Boris, despite his Roman Catholic parentage, is raised up in the Orthodox faith for political and dynastic reasons. He succeeds his father as king of Bulgaria when Ferdinand abdicates on Oct. 4, 1918.

The 1919 elections reflect massive public dissatisfaction with the war reparations, inflation, and rising taxes that prolong the chaotic living conditions of the war. The socialist and agrarian parties tighten their organizations and increase membership. The left wing of the Bulgarian Workers' Socialist-Democratic Party (BWSDP) numbered only 25,000 in 1919, and the BANU emerged as the largest party in the country.

The first major test for the government is a transport strike that lasted from December 1919 until February 1920. Fomented by the communists and the social democrats and joined by urban workers and middle-class Bulgarians, the strikers' protests are quelled harshly by the army and the Orange Guard, a quasi-military force. Suppression of the strike, mobilization of the peasant vote, and intimidation at the polls gave the BANU enough support to win the parliamentary election of 1920 over the communists and form a non-coalition government.

Tsar Boris and much of the Bulgarian middle class prefer the agrarians to the communists and social democrats, whom they fear much more. The government immediately began drastic economic reforms abolishing the merchants' trade monopoly on grain, replacing it with a government consortium; breaking up large urban and rural landholdings and selling the surplus to the poor; enacting an obligatory labor law to ease the postwar labor shortage; introducing progressive income tax; and making secondary schooling compulsory. All aspects of the radical reform policy aim at ridding society of "harmful" classes such as lawyers, usurers, and merchants, distributing capital and obligations more evenly through society, and raising the living standards of the landless and poor peasants.

In foreign policy, Boris III officially abandons Bulgaria's territorial claims, which he associates with a standing army, monarchy, large government expenditures, and other prewar phenomena that the agrarians consider anachronistic. After the war, no major power is available to protect Bulgarian interests in the Balkans. For this reason, the traditional approach to foreign policy is discarded in favor of rapprochement with all European powers and the new government of Kemal Atatürk in Turkey, membership in the League of Nations, and friendship with the new Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes (later the Kingdom of Yugoslavia). Relations with Turkey are greatly improved by Bulgarian support of Atatürk's revolutionary Turkish Republic in 1920.

Reconciliation with Yugoslavia is a necessary step toward to an ultimate goal of a multiethnic Balkan peasant federation. Improved Yugoslav relations requires a crackdown on the powerful Macedonian extremist movement. Accordingly, the government begins a two-year program of harsh suppression of IMRO in 1921; in 1923 Yugoslavia and Bulgaria agree at the Nis Convention to cooperate in controlling extremists.

During the following years Boris is the object of terrorist conspiracies inspired by the Comintern; two attempts are made on his life within a few days in April 1925 by the communists and by Marxist-oriented Agrarians. In the second assassination attempt a cathedral in Sofia is bombed, killing hundreds of people at a funeral service. Boris's marriage to Princess Giovanna of Italy (1930) temporarily cemented Bulgarian-Italian relations, but during the late 1930s he passes more into the German orbit and finds rapprochement with Yugoslavia.

On 19 May 1934 the Bulgarian military organization Zveno, with a coup, establishes a dictatorship and abolishes the political parties of Bulgaria. King Boris is reduced to the status of "puppet king". The following year Boris III organizes a coup, which allows him to regain control of the country and put a government executive who supports him. The political sphere returns to be the prerogative of the tsar. From 1938 Boris initiates a dictatorial policy.

Boris III of Bulgaria
(1918- 1943)

Drastic economic reforms, foreign policy with European powers, Turkey and the new kingdom of Yugoslavia. Tsar of Bulgaria and dictator from 1938 until his death.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Tomáš Masaryk, in full Tomáš Garrigue Masaryk (born March 7, 1850, near Göding, Moravia, Austrian Empire), chief founder and first president of Czechoslovakia.

In early 1915, after the outbreak of World War I, Masaryk made his way to western Europe, where he was recognized as the representative of the underground Czech liberation movement and conducted a vigorous campaign against Austria-Hungary and Germany.

After the overthrow of the autocratic tsarist regime in 1917, Masaryk transfers his activities to Russia in order to organize the Czechoslovak Legion, formed by Czechoslovak war prisoners, and to develop contacts with the new government. After the Bolshevik Revolution, he sets out for the United States, where he is welcomed by Czech and Slovak groups and where he negotiates the terms of Czechoslovak independence with President Woodrow Wilson and Secretary of State Robert Lansing. The Lansing Declaration of May 1918 expresses the sympathy of the U.S. government with the Czechoslovak freedom movement, and Czechoslovakia's liberation became one of Wilson's Fourteen Points for the post-World War I peace settlement.

When the new country of Czechoslovakia was proclaimed on Oct. 28, 1918, its leaders were still in exile. Masaryk was chosen as president on November 14, while he was still in the United States; he did not arrive in Prague until December. Beneš, the country's foreign minister, was in Paris for the upcoming peace conference, as was Karel Kramář, who had become Czechoslovakia's first prime minister. (The Slovak leader and first war minister Štefánik died in an airplane crash in May 1919.) Masaryk and Beneš remained in charge of foreign relations, and the leaders of five major parties dealt with home affairs.

On June 3, 1918, Czechoslovakia is recognized as an Allied power, and its frontiers are demarcated according to Masaryk's outline. As Masaryk has promised, the new multinational state respects the minority rights of its large German and Hungarian ethnic groups. On Nov. 14, 1918, he is elected president of Czechoslovakia, and he will be reelected in 1920, 1927, and 1934. As a true "liberator" and "father of his country" he is constantly occupied in settling the crises resulting from the conflicts between the Czech and the Slovak parties, as well as from Slovakia's minority status. A philosopher and democrat, he is among the first to voice his anxiety over central Europe's fate after the Nazis came to power in Germany in 1933.

Edvard Beneš (born May 28, 1884, Kozlany, Bohemia, Austria-Hungary) statesman, foreign minister, and president, a founder of modern Czechoslovakia who forget its Western-oriented foreign policy between World Wars I and II but capitulated to Adolf Hitler's demands during the Czech crisis of 1938.

After studying in Prague, Paris, and Dijon, France, Beneš receives a doctorate of laws in 1908 and taught at the Prague Commercial Academy and the Czech University of Prague before World War I. Influenced by the nationalist ideas of Tomáš Masaryk, Beneš follows his mentor to Switzerland during World War I and then establishes himself in Paris. With Masaryk and the Slovak leader Milan Štefánik, Beneš forms a propaganda organization that eventually becomes a Czechoslovak provisional government on October 14, 1918. With the collapse of Austria-Hungary in November 1918, a new Czechoslovak state was quickly formed. As foreign minister, Beneš heads his country's delegation to the Paris Peace Conference in 1919 and champions the League of Nations throughout the interwar period, serving as its Council chairman six times. Opposed to plans for union between Austria and Germany (after World War I and again in 1931), which he deemed a threat to Czechoslovakia's continued existence, he attempts to reestablish a balance of power in eastern Europe. To fill the partial power vacuum created by the collapse of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, Beneš negotiates the treaties with Romania and Yugoslavia (1921) that form the Little Entente, originally aimed at revisionist Hungary. France joined in 1924, and thereafter the alliance became a bloc against Germany and, to a lesser extent, the Soviet Union. In 1935, however, he signs a mutual assistance pact between his country and the Soviet Union.

He opposed Nazi Germany's claim to the German-speaking Sudetenland in 1938. In October 1938, Italy, France and the United Kingdom signed the Munich Agreement, which allowed for the annexation and the military occupation of the Sudetenland by Germany. Czechoslovakia was not consulted. Beneš agreed, despite opposition from within his country, after France and the United Kingdom warned that they would remain neutral, despite their previous promises, in a war between Germany and Czechoslovakia.

Thomas Masaryk (1918- 1934)

Founder and first president of Czechoslovakia. On June 3, 1918, Czechoslovakia is recognized as an Allied power, and its frontiers are demarcated according to Masaryk's outline.

Edvard Beneš (18 December 1884-5 October 1938)

Prime minister of Czechoslovakia during Masaryk's. He opposed Nazi Germany's claim to the German-speaking Sudetenland in 1938. Active participant of the Czech national social Party.

FRANCE

Raymond Poincaré was born in Bar-le-Duc (France) in 1860. He serves three times as Prime Minister of France: from 1912 to 1913, from 1922 to 1924 and from 1926 to 1929. He is also President from 1913 to 1920 and during the Twenties he is nominated Minister of Education, Finance, and Foreign Affairs. He is a conservative and moderate leader, who promotes a militaristic foreign policy. He aims to internal stability and peace, especially between all the parties and tries to turn the presidency into a base for this. Since the Paris Peace Conference he shows a strongly anti-German attitude, proclaiming the French re-occupation of the Rhineland, which he is able to actuate in 1923, after the German failure to pay reparations for the Great War.

In 1922 he is alarmed by the Treaty of Rapallo, signed by Germany and Soviet Russia, in which the two countries decide to renounce to all claims against the other and start to cooperate in various fields, also regarding the army, even if this part is kept secret. He is angry that Britain almost welcomes the Treaty of Rapallo as a chance to bring Soviet Russia into the international politics. So he understands that he can count just on himself in the “fight” against Germany.

Moreover, during the 1920s the propaganda against Poincaré (called ‘*Poincaré la guerre*’) is very harsh, appointing him as the responsible of the Great War because of his presumed pact with the Russian tsar to lacerate Germany. From now on his image is damaged. In general we can say that he is not a cruel man but, even if his aims are moderate, his inflexible methods and authoritarian personality lead to the failure of his diplomacy.

During his last mandate he manages to solve the deep French financial crisis and he is regarded as a great statesman, who gives a new tranquility and prosperity to his country.

He actually resigns from politics in 1929, because of his illness, but as a delegate you will continue to represent his policy in the debate until 1934, the year of his death.

Léon Blum was born in 1872 in Paris by a Jewish family. He is the leader of the French Socialist Party and one of the major exponents of the Popular Front, a united left-wing party created in France in 1938. Blum is elected Prime Minister two times between 1936 and 1938 and, before that, he is part of the National Assembly, opposing the policy of Poincaré. He is the first Jewish Prime Minister of France. Another very revolutionary aspect of this character is his decision of having women as undersecretaries, despite the fact that in this period women do not even have the right to vote in France.

Blum thinks that there is not such thing as a “good dictatorship”. He unsuccessfully tries to prevent a split between the opponents and supporters of the Russian Revolution. He also believes in the supremacy of France and in its civilizing mission for the ‘undeveloped races’.

Blum promotes important social reforms as the forty-hour working week. During these years France has to face a big economic crisis, which Blum tries to overcome with a series of economic reforms. However, this crisis undermines the French military potential, while German army is growing dramatically. For this reason Blum organizes a program for the production of weapons, abandoning social reforms.

He dissolves the far-right fascist leagues, which strongly oppose his government and Blum himself, because Jewish. He has to face very strong offenses and an attempted murder, because of his religion.

In 1936 Blum declares French neutrality in the Spanish Civil War, to avoid the propagation of the conflict into France, and collaborates with Britain and 25 other countries to sign an agreement against sending munitions and volunteer soldiers to Spain. However, a secret help is delivered to Spain by France. This situation strains the relations with the Communists and Soviet Russia, who demand support for Spain. In this negative atmosphere, in 1937, Blum decides to resign. This episode is regarded as a part of the *appeasement* program, organized above all by Britain and France in order to pacificate Hitler and Mussolini, satisfying some of their requests. Mussolini is considered a big opponent by Blum and the relationship with him is even more difficult than the one with Hitler.

Regarding the colonies, Blum tries to guarantee more rights to the Arabs of Algeria, but he is blocked by the colonist representatives in the Chamber and Senate.

In 1938 he is reelected and decides to send a lot of weapons to help the Spanish republicans. He rules just until April, when the government of the Popular Front collapses and he is obliged to resign.

Edouard Daladier was born in 1884 in Vancluse in France. He is three times the Prime Minister of France, the last one from April 1938. He is a Radical, part of centre-left wing and joins the Popular Front.

He abolishes many of Blum’s social reforms as the forty-hour working week, but promotes many initiatives to assist families. He also tries to stabilize the economic and financial situation, giving a new impulse to the industrial production.

Daladier takes part in the negotiations preceding the Munich Agreement, when France renounces to its obligations to defend Czechoslovakia against Germany, who wants to occupy the Sudetenland, a German-speaking region. He is pushed into negotiating by the British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain. Unlike Chamberlain, Daladier has no illusions about Hitler's final aim. He is convinced that Napoleon's program of conquests will seem feeble compared to Hitler's. His own reflection is: "Today, it is the turn of Czechoslovakia. Tomorrow, it will be the turn of Poland and Romania. When Germany has obtained the oil and wheat it needs, she will turn on the West. Certainly we must multiply our efforts to avoid war. But that will not be obtained unless Great Britain and France stick together. [...] If, on the contrary, the Western Powers capitulate again, they will only precipitate the war they wish to avoid." Nevertheless, guided by a pessimistic government and witnessing the horrors of the Great War, he follows Chamberlain in the Munich Conference and signs the Munich Pact with the Führer, allowing him to have control on the Sudetenland. Czechoslovakia is now defenseless and stops to exist.

Poicaré (1919-1934)	Conservative and authoritarian leader, strong anti-German policy
Blum (1934-April 1938)	Jewish, Socialist, social reforms, opponent of Fascism and Nazism, power to colonies, appeasement
Daladier (April 1938- 1940)	Radical, economic reforms, aware of Hitler's threat, however signs the Munich Agreement

GERMANY

Paul von Hindenburg was born in 1847 in Posen and died in 1934 in Neudeck. He was a German field marshal during World War I and the second President of the Weimar Republic (1925–34). His presidential terms are wracked by political instability, economic depression, and the rise to power of Adolf Hitler, whom he appoints as Chancellor in 1933. After the Treaty of Paris in 1919, Hindenburg collaborates briefly with the new republican government. He directs the withdrawal of German forces from France and Belgium and his staff organizes the suppression of left-radical risings in Germany. In April 1925, after the death of Friedrich Ebert, Hindenburg is elected the republic's second President, despite his professed monarchism.

When the Depression sets in and the government again breaks up, he does appoint a Cabinet resting on his, rather than on the Reichstag's (parliament's), confidence. He authorizes Chancellor Heinrich Brüning to dissolve the Reichstag should it prove uncooperative and promises to issue emergency decrees in lieu of Reichstag-enacted laws.

The Reichstag is dissolved in July 1930; new elections produce an even less cooperative successor, in which the antiparliamentarian National Socialists emerge as the second largest party. Brüning now governs almost exclusively by decree. Since the president's signature is required on each decree, however, Hindenburg can veto any governmental decision. Increasingly feeble, moody, and influenced by his military and landowning friends, the Marshal forces the government to spend huge amounts on the army and navy and hopelessly indebted estates at the expense of unemployment relief and other imperative needs. At the same time, Brüning's deflationist policies aggravate the economic difficulties. Unrest, sparks above all by the Nazis, keep mounting.

When Hindenburg's presidential term expires in April 1932, he ran again for the presidency as the only candidate who can defeat Hitler. Hitler insists on becoming chancellor in any government in which his party participated, but, despite a deluge of petitions and letters, Hindenburg, who distrusts Hitler's noisy aggressiveness, will not concede him that post. In November 1932, however, when the Nazis lose 10 percent of their vote in new Reichstag elections, Papen and Hitler agree on forming a government with Hitler as chancellor, Papen as vice chancellor, and non-Nazis in most other posts. Hindenburg is assured by Papen that Hitler can easily be controlled. Hindenburg, frustrated and tired, asks for his resignation. On January 30, 1933, Hindenburg appoints Hitler chancellor of a new Cabinet in which only two other Nazis, Wilhelm Frick and Hermann Göring, hold offices.

At the time of his death, Hindenburg is still a revered, though remote, national figure.

Years 1925-1934	Hindenburg is the Weimar President
Years 1932-1933	Hindenburg believes he can defeat Hitler's rise to power but Nazis win the elections and he asks for his resignations

Adolf Hitler was born April 20, 1889, in Braunau am Inn, Austria. He is the leader of the Nazi Party from 1920/21 and after President Paul von Hindenburg's death, assumes the twin titles of Führer and Chancellor (August 2, 1934).

He joins the German army in World War I and gets promoted to Corporal. He survives the war and in 1918 is bitterly disappointed with the perceived 'betrayal' of the German surrender and the harsh retribution set out by the Versailles Treaty. Against this backdrop of defeat and threat of turmoil within Germany, Hitler turns to politics and sets up a fledgeling political party – the NSDAP (Nazi party) with its mixture of nationalistic and fascist policies.

In 1923, Hitler leads his small Nazi party in an attempted seizure of power – known as the Munich beer hall putsch. The putsch fails, and Hitler is sentenced to jail. It is in prison that he writes "Mein Kampf", a rambling exposition of his philosophy which includes his growing anti-semitic ideology and ideas of an idealised Aryan race. On his release, Hitler then turns his attentions to gaining electoral support and contesting the elections of Weimar Germany. The onset of the Great Depression provides fertile ground for his radical and extremist policies. Against a backdrop of six million unemployed people, many in Germany feel there is a clear choice between Communism and the Nationalism of Hitler's Nazi party. With the help of his powerful rhetoric and his own private militia, Hitler leads the Nazi party to victory in the 1933 elections. He is made Chancellor and in 1934, on the death of Hindenburg, he is made the President. Hitler declares himself the supreme leader and ends all pretence to democracy. His rise to power is swift and comprehensive. Many ordinary Germans are enthusiastic at the success Hitler's Germany soon starts to achieve. Hitler begins an extensive programme of road building and rearmament, and this helps to radically

solve the unemployment which cripples many economies at the time. He writes the racial laws against Jews (the Norimberga laws) in 1935. At the 1936 Olympics in Berlin, Hitler tries to showcase his country as a model of dynamism and progress. But, in addition to the economic successes, Hitler begins a systematic policy of discrimination and harassment of the German Jewish population and any other segments of society that do not fit in with the Aryan ideal. This becomes increasingly brutalised and vicious. No dissent to the regime is tolerated, and this totalitarian state is enforced through a ruthlessly efficient secret police – the Gestapo and SS. In October 1936, a Rome–Berlin axis is proclaimed by Italian dictator Benito Mussolini; shortly afterward comes the Anti-Comintern Pact with Japan; and a year later all three countries join in a pact. Although on paper France has a number of allies in Europe, while Germany has none, Hitler’s Third Reich becomes the principal European power.

Hitler also seeks to regain territory lost in the Treaty of Versailles. This is the justification for the Anschluss with Austria and later the reclamation of the Sudetenland in Czechoslovakia. But Hitler’s ambitions do not merely rest on regaining lost territory. He also begins eyeing new territories and, in 1938, successfully gains the whole of Czechoslovakia.

Years 1920-1923	Hitler forms the Nazi Party and is part of the Munich beer hall putsch
Years 1933-1934	Hitler wins the elections and, after Hindenburg’s death, is proclaimed the President
Year 1935	Hitler writes the Norimberga laws against Jews
Year 1936	Olympics are set in Berlin and Germany. Italy and Japan sign an alliance
Year 1938	Hitler obtains Czechoslovakia in the Monaco conference

GREECE

Eleftherios Venizelos was born in 1864. He is elected several times as Prime Minister of Greece, serving from 1910 to 1920 and from 1928 to 1932. Venizelos has such profound influence on the internal and external affairs of Greece that he is credited with being "the maker of modern Greece", and is still widely known as the "Ethnarch". Not only he does initiate constitutional and economic reforms that sets the basis for the modernization of Greek society, but also reorganizes both army and navy in preparation of future conflicts.

Before the Balkan Wars of 1912–1913, Venizelos' catalytic role helps gain Greece entrance to the Balkan League, an alliance of the Balkan states against Ottoman Turkey. Through his diplomatic acumen, Greece doubles its area and population with the liberation of Macedonia, Epirus, and the rest of the Aegean islands. Venizelos secures new territorial gains, especially in Anatolia. Despite his achievements, Venizelos is defeated in the 1920 General Election, which contributed to the eventual Greek defeat in the Greco-Turkish War (1919–22). Venizelos, in self-imposed exile, represents Greece in the negotiations that leads to the signing of the Treaty of Lausanne (1932), and the agreement of a mutual exchange of populations between Greece, Turkey and Bulgaria. In his subsequent periods in office Venizelos succeeds in restoring normal relations with Greece's neighbors and expands his constitutional and economical reforms. In 1935 Venizelos resurfaces from retirement to support a military coup and its failure severely weakened the Second Hellenic Republic, the republic he had created.

Years 1910-1920	Venizelos is the Prime Minister of Greece and he doubles the territory of the State
Years 1919-1920	Greek defeat in Greco-Turkish War
Year 1932	Venizelos signs the Treaty of Lausanne with Turkey and Bulgaria

Ioannis Metaxas was born in 1871. He is a Greek General and the Prime Minister of Greece from 1936. Before 1919, he is made Chief of the Greek General Staff in 1913 and promoted to General, after the two Balkan Wars (1912 and 1913). A staunch monarchist, he supports Constantine I and opposes Greek entry into World War I. Venizelos, the Prime Minister, resigns over the refusal to aid the Dardanelles campaign and uses the war as the major issue in the elections. When Venizelos wins the March 1915 elections he mobilises the army but was dismissed by the king. In June 1917, with Allied support and 60,000 Cretan soldiers, the king is deposed and Venizelos empowered, declaring war on June 29, 1917. John Metaxas leaves Greece with the king, neither returning until 1920. When the monarchy is displaced in 1922 Metaxas moves into politics and founds the Party of Free Opinion in 1923. After a disputed plebiscite George II, son of Constantine I, returns to take the throne in 1935. The elections of 1936 produces a deadlock between Panagis Tsaldaris and Themistoklis Sophoulis. The political situation is further polarized by the gains made by the Communist Party of Greece (KKE). Disliking the Communists and fearing a coup, George II appoints Metaxas, then minister of war, to be interim Prime Minister. Widespread industrial unrest in May allows Metaxas to declare a state of emergency. He suspends the parliament indefinitely and annuls various articles of the constitution. By August 4, 1936 Metaxas is effectively dictator. Patterning his regime on other authoritarian European governments (most notably Mussolini's and Hitler's fascist regimes), Metaxas bans political parties, arrests his opponents, criminalizes strikes and introduces widespread censorship of the media. But he does not have great popular support or a strong ideology. The Metaxas government seeks to pacify the working classes by raising wages, regulating hours and improving working conditions. For rural areas agricultural prices are raised and farm debts are taken on by the government. Despite these efforts Greek people generally moves towards the political left, without actively opposing Metaxas though. In foreign policy John Metaxas is caught in a dilemma. He sees Germany and Italy as 'natural' allies but in the Mediterranean the British and their fleet are a major force while the expansionist dreams of Mussolini are clearly threatening Greece.

Year 1936-1941	Metaxas is the dictator of Greece following the model of dictatorship of Mussolini and Hitler
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HUNGARY

Miklós Horthy de Nagybánya (18 June 1868) is an Hungarian admiral and statesman, who becomes the Regent of Hungary. He serves as Regent of the Kingdom of Hungary from 1 March 1920 to 15 October 1944. Horthy starts his career as a Sub-Lieutenant in the Austro-Hungarian Navy in 1896 and attains the rank of Rear-Admiral in 1918. He sees action in the Battle of the Strait of Otranto and becomes Commander-in-Chief of the Austro-Hungarian Navy in the last year of Great War, he is promoted to Vice-Admiral and Commander of the Fleet when the previous Admiral was dismissed from his post by Emperor Karl following mutinies. In 1919, following a series of revolutions and external interventions in Hungary from Romania, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia, Horthy returns to Budapest with the National Army and is subsequently invited to become Regent of the Kingdom by parliament. Horthy led a national conservative government through the interwar period, banning the Hungarian Communist Party as well as the fascist Arrow Cross Party, and pursuing an irredentist foreign policy in the face of the Treaty of Trianon. King Charles IV unsuccessfully attempted twice to return to Hungary until, in 1921, the Hungarian Government caves in to Allied threats to renew hostilities.

The excisions, eventually ratified in the Treaty of Trianon of 1920, costs Hungary two-thirds of its territory and one-third of its native Hungarian speakers; this dealt the population a terrible psychological blow. The second trauma begins in March 1919, when the Communist leader Béla Kun seizes power in the capital, Budapest, after the first proto-democratic government in Hungary faltered.

Kun and his colleagues proclaim a Hungarian Soviet Republic and promise the restoration of Hungary's former grandeur. Instead, his efforts at reconquest failed, and Hungarians are treated to a Soviet-style repression in the form of armed gangs who intimidate or murdered enemies of the regime. This period of violence comes to be known as the Red Terror.

On 1 March 1920, the National Assembly of Hungary re-establish the Kingdom of Hungary. However, it is apparent that the Allies of Great War would not accept any return of King Charles IV (the former Austro-Hungarian emperor) from exile. Instead, with National Army officers controlling the parliament building, the assembly vote to install Horthy as Regent; he defeats Count Albert Apponyi by a vote of 131 to 7.

The politicians give Horthy “the general prerogatives of the King, with the exception of the right to name titles of nobility and of the patronage of the Church.” The prerogatives he was given included the power to appoint and dismiss prime ministers, to convene and dissolve parliament, and to command the armed forces. With those sweeping powers guaranteed, Horthy took the oath of office.

The first decade of Horthy's reign was primarily consumed by stabilizing the Hungarian economy and political system. Horthy's chief partner in these efforts is his prime minister, István Bethlen.

British political and economic support played a significant role in the stabilization and consolidation of the early Horthy era in the Kingdom of Hungary. Bethlen tries to stabilize the economy while building alliances with weaker nations that could advance Hungary's cause. That cause is, primarily, reversing the losses of the Treaty of Trianon. The humiliations of the Trianon treaty continue to occupy a central place in Hungarian foreign policy and the popular imagination. The indignant anti-Trianon slogan "Nem, nem soha!" ("No, no never!") becomes a ubiquitous motto of Hungarian outrage. When in 1927 the British newspaper magnate Lord Rothermere denounce, in the pages of his Daily Mail, the partitions ratified at Trianon, an official letter of gratitude was eagerly signed by 1.2 million Hungarians.

But Hungary's stability is precarious, and the Great Depression derailed much of Bethlen's economic balance. Horthy replaced him with an old reactionary confederate from his Szeged days: Gyula Gömbös. Gömbös was an outspoken anti-Semite and a budding fascist. Although he agrees to Horthy's demands that he temper his anti-Jewish rhetoric and work amicably with Hungary's large Jewish professional class, Gömbös's tenure begins swinging Hungary's political mood powerfully rightward. He strengthened Hungary's ties to Benito Mussolini's Italian fascist state. Fatefully, when Adolf Hitler took power in Germany in 1933, he finds in Gömbös an admiring and obliging colleague. Gömbös rescues the failing economy by securing trade guarantees from Germany – a strategy that positioned Germany as Hungary's primary trading partner and tied Hungary's future even more tightly to Hitler's. He also assures Hitler that Hungary would quickly become a one-party state modelled on the Nazi party control of Germany. Gömbös dies in 1936, before he realized his most extreme goals, but he left his nation headed into firm partnership with the German dictator.

Horthy (1920- 1944)

The first decade of Horthy's reign was primarily consumed by stabilizing the Hungarian economy and political system. He installed an anti-Jewish policy. He strengthened Hungary's ties to Benito Mussolini and Adolf Hitler.

INDIA

Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi, universally known as Mahatma, that means ‘Great Soul’, was born in 1869 in Porbandar (India).

He is a lawyer, politician, writer and social activist, that fights against the British dominion in his land, but above all he is the leader of the Indian Independence Movement and is trying to lead his country to freedom. He is best known for his non-violent civil disobedience, that inspires nowadays hundreds of movements for civil rights and freedoms around the world. He accurately studies the main religions, understanding that all of them are true and promotes religious and racial pluralism, in a world that is quickly becoming intolerant for diversity.

He starts his claim for the recognition of basic rights and for the elimination of racial discrimination for his people during the 20 years spent in South Africa as a lawyer. He is upset by British indifference to Muslim anger on the peace terms offered to Turkey and tries to build an Indian-Muslim alliance against Britain, which is criticized by many Hindu leaders and ends in 1922 with the advent of Atatürk.

In February 1919 he organizes the first *satyagraha* struggle (non-violent protest) against the British, after they promoted the imprisonment without trial of people suspected of sedition. The rulers respond with the massacre of 400 Indians. This event convinces him to campaign for Indian independence.

By 1920 he is the most important political figure in his country, and transforms the Indian national Congress into an effective instrument for Indian nationalism with the representation of the mass. He is convinced that Indian co-operation is the cause of their submission and does not want to fight Britain with weapons, but with non-co-operation acts. For this reason he organizes many boycotts of British institutions and manufactures, marches and fasts and encourages people to refuse to pay taxes.

In 1922 he is arrested for sedition and released two years later. The Congress is now split into two and the fights between Hindu and Muslim are common. He promptly starts to reunite his people and in 1924 is proclaimed president of the Indian National Congress.

On 26th January 1930 the Congress proclaims Indian independence, which is not recognized by Britain. Two months later Gandhi launches the Salt March against British taxation on salt. He marches for 388 km to the sea, followed by thousands of Indians. Rulers responds with the imprisonment of 60,000 people. Then he attends the Round Table Conference in London, together with European leaders, to discuss about the Indian independence, but without gaining a result.

After another imprisonment, he starts to fight against the segregation of the untouchables promoted by British. In 1934 he resigns from politics, because he understands that his colleagues do not share his vision regarding non-violence and he concentrates on the education of rural India.

Gandhi, as a pacifist, hates racism and nazism, and is afraid that, if a war came, the Congress would support Indian intervention together with Britain.

Gandhi (1919-1948)	Leader of Indian independence, against UK, non-violent protests, religious and racial tolerance.
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IRAQ

Faisal I of Iraq was born in Mecca in 1885. He is King of Syria in 1920 and King of Iraq from 1921 to 1933, until his death. He is the son of Hussein bin Ali, the Grand Sheriff of Mecca, who proclaimed himself King of the Arab territories in 1916.

Faisal takes part in the Paris Peace Conference, leading the Arab delegation, and asks for the establishment of independent Arab emirates for Arab areas, previously under the Ottoman Empire. After the fall of this old Empire, English and Arab forces take Syria and install there an Arab government, under British protection. The elections in 1920 are won by Faisal, who becomes King of Syria.

In 1919, Emir Faisal and Dr. Chaim Weizmann, President of the Zionist Organization, sign an agreement for Arab-Jews Cooperation, in which Faisal accepts the Balfour Declaration, a document of 1917 in which British granted their support for the establishment of a Jewish homeland in Palestine. In this occasion Faisal says: "I look forward, and my people with me look forward, to a future in which we will help you and you will help us, so that the countries in which we are mutually interested may once again take their places in the community of the civilized peoples of the world." In this occasion is also decided that Israel will be set in the Southern part of Syria. However, all the plans are destroyed when, in 1920, the League of Nations gives the mandates to European countries on old-Ottoman-Empire territories, in order to help them through the process of independence. The mandate for Syria and Lebanon is given to France and the one for Palestine and Iraq to England, so to two different states. This leads to the French-Syrian War, which is won by France, that expels Faisal from his country.

At this point England decides to create a Kingdom in Iraq, while maintaining the mandate and proposes Faisal as king. A plebiscite is held and he wins with 96% of votes.

Faisal is tolerant: respects Jewish, Kurdish and Shiites and rejects the policies of Jewish exclusion promulgated in the late 1920s. He improves education and tries to build a strong Iraqi army.

During his reign he encourages the pan-Arab nationalism and aims to unite all the Arab lands of Syria, Lebanon and Iraq under his power. Turkey, even if Arab, sees Syria and Iraq as its enemies and prefers them to be separated and weak, and so opposes to the creation of a federation of Arab states. During the Syrian Revolt against France in 1925, the latter asks support to Faisal, promising him a role in the future of Syria. However, this turns out being just a plan to dissuade him from helping the Syrian rebels. Moreover, the majority of Syrians do not want to be ruled by Iraq. This episode endangers the relation with France.

Obviously also the relationship with Britain is not easy and, since the beginning, a series of revolts and protests takes place in Iraq to achieve more independence from Britain. However, they are repressed with blood by the British and Iraq has to wait for its freedom.

In 1929 revolts break out in Jerusalem between the Arab and Jewish communities. Faisal states that he wants to accept the Palestine Mandate as a "Jewish national home" to which Jews might go, but he clarifies that there will not be a "Jewish state". He wants Palestine to be incorporated in a federation led by himself. Faisal states a compromise, saying that if Iraq does not block the Jewish immigration, Zionism has to abandon its desire of building a Jewish state. However, he knows that his whole project cannot be realized until there will not be a federation consisting of all Arab territories. Tensions between Arabs and Jewish increase and Faisal asks Britain to reduce Jewish migration.

Faisal negotiates with Britain and, in 1930, signs a treaty that gives Iraq complete independence and membership in the League of Nations by 1932.

In 1933 Faisal dies, probably poisoned, and is succeeded by his son Ghazi.

Ghazi I of Iraq was born in Mecca in 1912. He succeeds his father Faisal I in the ruling of Iraq from 1933, in a very difficult period for the Iraqi monarchy.

He is a strong pan-Arab nationalist and follows the desires and path of his father of creating a federation of Arab states. In order to assure Iraqi independence he opposes to British interests in his country.

Ghazi's reign is characterized by fights between civilians and the army, which want to achieve more power in the government. In fact he becomes king when he is just 20 years old and he is very inexperienced, presenting the perfect situation for the opposition to weaken the government. They organize a series of press and public attacks to embarrass the Prime minister and other ministers and tribal protests throughout the country. Ghazi even supports General Bakr Sidqi in his coup of 1936, which replaces the civilian government with a military one. This is the first coup d'état of the modern Arab world.

He probably sympathizes for Nazi's ideas and policies. He has many radical and extreme ideas, for example the one promoting Kuwait annexation to Iraq.

From 1936 Iraq the Arab Revolt in Palestine starts. This Revolt is a nationalist uprising against the British rule on Palestine demanding Arab independence, a control on Jewish immigration and land purchases with the goal of creating a "Jewish National Home" and it is still going on.

Faisal I (1919-1933)	Leader of the Arabs, projects to reunite all Arab territories, respects other races, first is allied with Jewish, but after 1929 they fight for the same land, allied with UK, against France
Ghazi I (1933- 1939)	Radical, weak government, supports Nazi's ideas, fights against Jewish and UK

ITALY

Victor Emmanuel III was born in 1869 in Neapels.

He is the King of Italy from 29 July 1900. During his reign, which began after the assassination of his father Umberto I, the Kingdom of Italy be involved in the Great War. His reign also encompasses the birth and rise of Italian Fascism. He appoints Benito Mussolini as Prime Minister in 1922. On 29 July 1900, at the age of 30, Victor Emmanuel accedes to the throne upon his father's assassination.

During the period of Great War, the King enjoys the genuine affection of the majority of his people. But after the finish of the war, it stars an economy depression, that gives rise to much extremism among Italy's sorely tried working classes. This causes the country as a whole to become politically unstable. Benito Mussolini, soon to be Italy's Fascist dictator, takes advantage of this instability for his rise to power.

The Italian army is loyal to the King. Even the commander of the Blackshirts, and one of the organisers of the March on Rome, tells Mussolini that he would not act against the wishes of the monarch. On 30 October 1922, Vittorio Emanuele III appoints Mussolini President of the Council of Ministers (Prime Minister), at the age of 39, with no previous experience of office, and with only 35 Fascist deputies in the Chamber. From this moment, the power of the king will decrease and inversely Mussolini will take the complete control of the State.

1900-1946	Vittorio Emanuele III is the King of the Kingdom of Italy
1922	From the March on Rome the king will lose all his power

Benito Mussolini was born in 1883 in Predappio, Italy.

He is the Italian prime minister (1922– 1943) and the first of 20th-century Europe's fascist dictators.

In 1919 Benito Mussolini Found the Fascist Party, which organizes several right-wing groups into a single force. The fascist movement proclaims opposition to social class discrimination and supported nationalist sentiments. Mussolini hopes to raise Italy to levels of its great Roman past. Mussolini criticizes the Italian government for weakness at the Treaty of Versailles. Capitalizing on public discontent following Great War, he organizes a paramilitary unit known as the "Black Shirts," who terrorizes political opponents and helps increase Fascist influence.

As Italy slips into political chaos, Mussolini declares that only he can restore order and is given the authority in 1922 as prime minister. He gradually dismantles all democratic institutions. By 1925, he has made himself dictator, taking the title "Il Duce" ("the Leader"). To his credit, Mussolini carries out an extensive public works program and reduced unemployment, making him very popular with the people.

In 1935, determined to show the strength of his regime, Benito Mussolini invades Ethiopia. The ill-equipped Ethiopians are no match for Italy's modern tanks and airplanes, and the capital, Addis Ababa, is quickly captured. Mussolini incorporates Ethiopia into the new Italian Empire. On the night of May 9, 1936, he announces to an enormous, expectant crowd of about 400,000 people standing shoulder to shoulder around Piazza Venezia in Rome that "in the 14th year of the Fascist era" a great event is accomplished: Italy has its empire. This moment probably marks the peak of public support for the regime. Italy finds a new ally. Intent upon his own imperial ambitions in Austria, Adolf Hitler encourages Mussolini's African adventure, and under Hitler's guidance Germany is the one powerful country in western Europe that is not turned against Mussolini. The way is now open for the Pact of Steel—a Rome-Berlin Axis and a brutal alliance between Hitler and Mussolini. In 1938, following the German example, Mussolini's government passes anti-Semitic laws in Italy that discriminate against Jews in all sectors of public and private life .

1922	Mussolini is named Prime Minister
1935	Mussolini invades Etiopia and proclaims the State part of the Kingdom of Italy
1938	With Hitler, Mussolini signs the Pact of Steel and following Germany the italian government passes the anti-Semitic laws.

JAPAN

Hirohito, original name Michinomiya Hirohito, posthumous name Shōwa, (born April 29, 1901, Tokyo, Japan), emperor of Japan from 1926.

Hirohito born at the Aoyama Palace in Tokyo, the son of the Taishō emperor and grandson of the Meiji emperor. He is educated at the Peers' School and at the Crown Prince's Institute. Early in life he develops an interest in marine biology, on which he later will write several books. In 1921 he visits Europe, becoming the first Japanese crown prince to travel abroad. After his return he is named prince regent when his father retired because of mental illness. In 1924 Hirohito married the princess Nagako Kuni.

Hirohito becomes emperor of Japan on December 25, 1926, following the death of his father. His reign is designated Shōwa ("Bright Peace," or "Enlightened Harmony").

By the early 1930s, militarists are gaining support from the public in Japan. Members of nationalist societies killed numbers of politicians and business leaders that do not like militarism. Military leaders plot to takeover the government and dwell in the center of Tokyo. All civilians have to become used to the military having power.

The Meiji Constitution (promulgated 1889) invests the emperor with supreme authority, but in practice he generally gives his assent to policies formulated by his ministers and advisers. On occasion, however, he asserts his authority, most notably when he orders the suppression of an attempted coup by several military officers in February 1936.

When Japan declares war on China in 1931, he reluctantly supported it. He also unwillingly supports the invasion of Manchuria in 1937. Japan set their eyes on the province of Manchuria because it is rich in natural resources and many Japanese companies had investments there. In 1931, a group of Japanese army men triggers an incident, which would give the Japanese an excuse to invade. They blow up a set of railroad tracks on a Japanese own railroad and blame it on the Chinese. In "self-defense", they attacked Manchuria. The Japanese military conquered all of Manchuria and set up a state there call Manzhouguo, they do all of this without consulting their government. The League of Nations predestined Japan's actions; Japan withdrew itself from the league. The government disagrees with the military's actions but the public sides with the military. In the following years, the Japanese military would take the liberty of dominating other areas as well.

Hirohito (1921- 1989)

Becomes official emperor in 1926 with supreme authority, but he is named prince regent in 1921. In 1931 he declares war to China.

JEWISH AGENCY FOR ISRAEL

David Ben-Gurion, originally called David Gruen was born in 1886 in a small city in the Russian Empire, now in Poland. He is one of the leaders of Zionism and is inspired by his father, the chief of the “Lovers of Zion”, a movement that spreads among the oppressed Jews of eastern Europe the idea of the return to their original homeland of Palestine. For this reason when he is still young changes his surname in ‘Ben-Gurion’, an ancient Hebrew surname, and moves to Palestine, until he is expelled by the Ottoman Empire for his dangerous actions in favor of Jewish people.

After the Balfour Declaration of 1917, in which Britain promises to give Jewish help in the creation of their “national home”, Ben-Gurion understands that he can count on this European country. After the desegregation of the Ottoman Empire the League of Nations decides to give the mandate on Palestine to England, in order to help this newborn country to achieve peace. Ben-Gurion sees the fulfillment of his dream very close and enforces the Jewish migration to Palestine.

In 1920 Ben-Gurion funds the “Histadrut”, the Confederation of Jewish Workers in Palestine. The “Histadrut” soon becomes a central force in social, economic, and security affairs, becoming practically a “state within a state.” In 1930 “Mapai”, the Israeli Workers Party, is created, with Ben-Gurion at its head. In 1935 he is elected chairman of the Zionist Executive, the highest position in the Zionist world, and head of the Jewish Agency, funded by Chaim Weizmann in 1929. It aims to protect the interests of Jews, help them in the realization of their state and regulate the migrations to Palestine. Moreover, it represents the Jewish world in the League of Nations.

The ties of Jewish and Arab peoples are different, in different times. Soon after the Great War, they have common interests in gaining independence and in establishing their own countries. They decide to cooperate and Arabs welcome the Balfour Declaration. They even would let Jewish establish their realm in Southern Syria, but when the mandate is given to two different states, Palestine to Britain and Syria to France, their programs are destroyed. However, both Arabs and Jewish are supported by Britain. When time goes on Jews migration to Middle East increases and this endangers the fragile equilibrium between the two countries. Many revolts and fights begin in 1929 between Jewish and Arabs in Jerusalem. Soon after, the Arab leader Faisal clarifies that he will support the creation of a “Jewish national home” as the Balfour Declaration says, but not a proper “Jews state”, so he aspires to let Jews live in a federation held by himself. Even if this project is just a desire, it endangers the relationship between the two peoples.

During the Arab Revolt in Palestine from 1936, Ben-Gurion promotes a policy of moderation in contrasting Arab attacks, concentrating only on self-defense. This Revolt is a nationalist uprising against the British rule on Palestine demanding Arab independence, a control on Jewish immigration and land purchases with the goal of creating a "Jewish National Home".

In 1937 Britain sees the need of the division of Palestine into Jewish and Arab areas and Ben-Gurion shares this view. He respects Arabs and believes in their equal rights, even if they are enemies.

The fights between the two peoples last for years and a solution seems not close.

Ben-Gurion (1919-1948)

Jewish moderate leader, fights for a “Jewish National Home”, allied with UK, first allied with Arabs, from 1929 they fight for the same land,

POLAND

Ignacy Jan Paderewski is born in a village near Podolia, in the Russian Empire on 18 November 1860.

During the Great War, Paderewski becomes an active member of the Polish National Committee and was immediately accepted by the Triple Entente, as a Polish ambassador.

At the end of the war, with the fate of Poznań still undecided and the question of the great unresolved Poland, Paderewski visits Poznań. After his public speech on December 27, 1918, the Polish inhabitants of Poznań undertake a military uprising against Germany, called the Great Polish uprising.

In 1919, in newly independent Poland, Paderewski becomes the Prime Minister and Foreign Minister and represents the nation at the Paris Peace Conference. In the summer of that year he signs the Treaty of Versailles which restores the territories of Greater Poland and Pomerania around the city of Gdansk.

December 4, 1919 and becomes a Polish ambassador to the League of Nations.

In 1922 he retires from active politics and soon he moves to Morges in Switzerland. After the coup of Józef Piłsudski in 1926, Paderewski becomes an active member of the opposition. In 1936 a coalition of opposition members was formed in his villa; it is called the Front of Morges from the name of the village.

In 1937 he participates in the film *Ardente fiamma* interpreting himself.

After the 1939 invasion of Poland, Paderewski returns to public life. In 1940 he becomes the head of the Polish National Council, a Polish parliament in exile in London.

Józef Klemens Piłsudski is a revolutionary, general and Polish politician.

Leader of the Polish Armed Forces (1926-1935) and the Second Republic of Poland, he is one of the most important Polish political figures of his era, and is considered the father of the regained Polish independence, 123 years after the third partition of Poland.

In 1914, at the outbreak of the Great War, Piłsudski organizes the Polish legions who fought alongside the Central Empires (Austria-Hungary and Germany) against Russia. On November 5, 1916 the Central Powers proclaims the independence of the Kingdom of Poland, but as a mere puppet state to be used in an anti-Russian function.

In November 1918, defeats the Central Powers, Piłsudski overthrows the Regency Council they established to govern Poland and take over the leadership of the new Polish Republic. With the Treaty of Versailles (1919) Poland obtains the recognition of independence and also the purchase of Galicia, of Posnania and of an outlet to the sea (the Polish Corridor) with the port of Gdynia. Appointed Head of State (1919), Piłsudski searches to establish a federation with Lithuanians, Ruthenians and Ukrainians taking advantage of Russian weakness: appointed commander of the army with the rank of Marshal of Poland (March 1920), invaded Ukraine to Kiev (war Soviet-Polish).

The counteroffensive of the Red Army is rejected at the gates of Warsaw thanks to a pincer movement of the Polish army near a bend in the Vistula (August 1920). The Western allies (Great Britain, France) limit themselves to verbal support. The war ends with the Treaty signed in Riga on March 18, 1921.

In 1922 Piłsudski withdrew from politics, but given the increasing internal tension between political and economic crisis and ethnic conflicts, he implements, inspired by the march on Rome by Benito Mussolini, a coup d'etat (May 14, 1926) with which he assumes powers dictatorial. Sanacja (Rehabilitation) is the name of the political coalition created by Piłsudski after the coup. He is the Prime Minister (1926-1928, 1930), Minister of War (1926-1935) and Head of General Staff, governs dictatorially with the support of the army, and in 1935 promulgates a new Constitution (articulated democracy) that it effectively abolished the parliamentary system. In foreign policy, to safeguard the independence of Poland from the aims of its neighbors, he always tries to prevent the resurgence of German power and Russian expansionism: after the rise of the Nazis by Adolf Hitler (January 1933), he seems to want to agree with France for a preventive war against Germany, but then concludes a non-aggression pact with the Reich (1934). He dies of cancer in Warsaw in 1935 and is buried in the Wawel Cathedral in Krakow.

Paderewski (1919)

First Minister from 16 gennaio 1919–9 dicembre 1919. He represents the nation at the Peace Conference and he signs the Treat of Versailles

Piłsudski (1918- 1922)

Head of State from 1918 until 1922. Leader of the Polish armed forces and (1926-1935) of the Second Republic of Poland, he was one of the most important Polish political figures of his era, and is considered the father of the regained Polish independence, 123 years after the third partition of Poland.

PORTUGAL

Antonio José de Almeida was born in 1866 in Vale de Vinha and dies in 1929 in Lisbon. He is the President of the Republic of Portugal from the 5 October 1919 to the 5 October 1923.

He joins the republican movement and is one of the most eloquent orators; elected to the Câmara dos Senhores Deputados from 1906 to 1910 as a representative of Lisbon. He is involved in abortive republican coup and subsequently imprisoned in 1908; as a leader of moderate wing of the Partido Republicano Português (Portuguese Republican Party), joins the Provisional Government of Joaquim Teófilo Braga as minister of the interior from 1910 to 1911. He splits with the republicans and founds in 1912 the Evolutionist Republican Party.

He appoints President of the Ministry and minister of colonies from 1916 to 1917 and in this government he also serves briefly as interim finance minister (twice) and interim minister of public education. He becomes a leader of the Republican Liberal Party of the Republican Evolutionist Party and Republican Union and wins parliamentary elections in 1919, serving from 5 October 1919 to 5 October 1923 .

He endures a long period of political instability, including a number of revolts and the assassination of President of the Ministry António Joaquim Granjo on 20 November 1920. He travels to Brazil in 1922 to celebrate the centennial of Brazilian independence and after the expiration of his term as President, he continued to cooperate with “República”.

Years 1919-1923	Almeida is the President of Portugal, promoting the Republic
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António de Oliveira Salazar was born in 1889 in Port. He serves as prime minister of Portugal from 1932. Salazar helps to form the Catholic Centre Party in 1921 and is elected to the Cortes (parliament), but he resigns after one session and returns to the university. In May 1926, after the army has overthrown Portugal’s parliamentary government, to Salazar is offered the cabinet post of minister of finance, but he can not obtain his own conditions. In 1928 General António Oscar de Fragoso Carmona, as president, offers him the finance ministry with complete control over the government’s income and expenditures, and this time Salazar accepts. As finance minister, he reverses the century-old tradition of deficits and makes budgetary surpluses the hallmark of his regime. The surpluses are invested in a series of development plans.

Gaining in power, Salazar is named prime minister by Carmona in 1932, and thus becomes the strongest man of Portugal. He drafts a new constitution that reorganizes Portugal’s political system along authoritarian lines. Salazar’s rule is strongly influenced by Catholic, papal, and nationalist thoughts. Salazar calls his new order in Portugal the New State (Estado Novo). The National Assembly is composed solely of government supporters, and Salazar chooses his own ministers, whose work he closely supervises. Political freedoms in Portugal is thus curtailed, military police repress dissidents, and attention is concentrated on economic recovery.

Years 1932-1968	Salazar is named Prime Minister and he starts to become a dictator
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RUSSIA

Vladimir Lenin was born in 1870 in Simbirsk and dies in 1924 in Gorki. He is the founder of the Russian Communist Party, inspirer and leader of the Bolshevik Revolution (1917), and the architect, builder, and first head (1917–24) of the Soviet State. If the Bolshevik Revolution is—as some people have called it—the most significant political event of the 20th century, then Lenin must for good or ill be regarded as the century’s most significant political leader. After this event, from 1918 to 1920 Russia is torn by a Civil War, which costs millions of lives and untold destruction. One of the earliest victims is Lenin himself. In August 1918 an assassin fires two bullets into Lenin as he leaves a factory in which he has just delivered a speech. But he recovers rapidly. The Soviet government faces tremendous odds. The anti-Soviet forces, or Whites, head mainly by former tsarist generals and admirals, fight desperately to overthrow the Red regime. Moreover, the Whites are lavishly supplied by the Allies with materiel, money, and support troops that secure White bases. Yet, the Whites fail. After the defeat of the Whites, the peasants no longer have to make a choice. They now totally refuse to surrender their grain to the government. Threatened by mass peasant rebellion, Lenin calls a retreat. In March 1921 the government introduces the New Economy Policy, which ends the system of grain requisitioning and permits the peasant to sell his harvest on an open market. This constitutes a partial retreat to capitalism. By 1921 Lenin’s government has crushed all opposition parties on the grounds that they have opposed or fail to support sufficiently the Soviet cause in the Civil War. Now that peace has come, Lenin believes that their opposition is more dangerous than ever, since the peasantry and even a large section of the working class has become disaffected with the Soviet regime. To repress opponents of Bolshevism, Lenin demands the harshest measures, including “show” trials and frequent resort to the death penalty. Moreover, he insists on even tighter control over dissent within the party. Lenin’s insistence on merciless destruction of the opposition to the Bolshevik dictatorship subsequently leads many observers to conclude that Lenin, though personally opposes to one-man rule, nevertheless unwittingly clears the way for the rise of Joseph Stalin’s dictatorship. But in April 1922 Stalin wins appointment as general secretary of the party, in which post he is rapidly concentrating immense power in his hands. In the spring of 1922, however, Lenin feels seriously ill. His political activity comes to an end. He died in January 1924.

Year 1917	Lenin is the protagonist of the Russian Revolution and he is named President of the new state
Years 1918-1920	An hard Civil War shocks Russia but the Red Party wins
Year 1921	Lenin grants to the peasants the New Economy Policy

Joseph Stalin was born in 1879 in Gori.

He is secretary-general of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union from 1922.

In 1922, Stalin is appointed to the newly created office of general secretary of the Communist Party. Though not a significant post at the time, it gives to Stalin control over all party member appointments, which allows him to build his base. He makes shrewd appointments and consolidates his power so that eventually nearly all members of the central command owe their position to him. Lenin, who was gravely ill, is helpless to regain control from Stalin. After Lenin's death, in 1924, Stalin sets out to destroy the old party leadership and takes total control. At first, he has people removed from power through bureaucratic shuffling and denunciations. Many are exiled abroad to Europe and the Americas, including presumed Lenin successor Leon Trotsky. However, further paranoia sets in and Stalin soon conducts a vast reign of terror, having people arrested in the night and put before spectacular show trials. Potential rivals are accused of aligning with capitalist nations, convicted of being "enemies of the people" and summarily executed. The purges eventually extend beyond the party elite to local officials suspected of counterrevolutionary activities. In the late 1920s and early 1930s, Stalin reverses the Bolshevik agrarian policy by seizing land given earlier to the peasants and organizing collective farms. This essentially reduces the peasants back to serfs, as they had been during the monarchy. Stalin believes that collectivism will accelerate food production, but the peasants resent losing their land and working for the state. Millions are killed in forced labor or starve during the ensuing famine. Stalin also sets in motion rapid industrialization that initially achieved huge successes, but over time costs millions of lives and vast damage to the environment. Any resistance is met with swift and lethal response; millions of people are exiled to the labor camps of the Gulag or are executed.

Year 1922	Stalin is named General Secretary of the Communist Party
Years 1923-1952	Stalin starts to re-build the Red Party and becomes a dictator.

SPAIN

Miguel Primo de Rivera was born in 1870 in Cadiz and dies in 1930 in Paris, France.

He is the dictator of Spain from September 1923 to January 1930 and he founded an authoritarian and nationalistic regime that attempts to unify the nation around the motto "Country, Religion, Monarchy."

Before the 1919, in 1915 he is named military governor of Cádiz and four years later captain general of Valencia. In the same capacity in Barcelona in 1922, he acts firmly in suppressing disorder. He sees the unrest and upheaval there and in the nation at large as products of a parliamentary system that he terms corrupt and inefficient. When he is brought to power by the coup d'état of September 1923, he accordingly dissolves the Cortes (parliament) and suspends constitutional guarantees.

The most popular achievement of Primo de Rivera's regime is the successful termination of the Moroccan War (1927). He also has some success in settling labour difficulties and in public works undertakings. His government fails to win the support of the middle classes, however, and also suppresses liberties in Catalonia. Further, its reliance on the landlord class prevents the implementation of fundamental agrarian reforms. Primo de Rivera attempts to create a strong party faithful to Spanish traditions, but his Unión Patriótica fails to fulfill this hope. The regime survives three attempts to overthrow it by force in 1926, but discontent with the government, which is becoming increasingly intolerant of opposition, continues to grow. By 1929 public finance is in a troubled state, and dissatisfaction has spread to many segments of society. When his principal source of power, the army, refuses to support him, Primo de Rivera is forced to resign, and, broken in health, he dies shortly afterward.

Years 1923-1930

Primo Rivera is the dictator of Spain and all the power is in his hands but in the end of this period he is forced to resign because of the finance problems of the State.

Francisco Franco was born in 1892 in El Ferrol, Spain.

He is the general and the leader of the Nationalist forces that overthrew the Spanish democratic republic in the Spanish Civil War from 1936.

Franco has not taken part in the coup of Primo de Rivera in 1923, but still becomes director of a new General Military Academy in 1928. However, this is dissolved following a revolution which expells the monarchy and creates the Spanish Second Republic. Franco, a monarchist, stays largely quiet and loyal and is restored to command in 1932 - and promoted in 1933 - as a reward for not staging a right-wing coup. After being promoted to Major General in 1934 by a new rightist government, he savagely crushes a rebellion of miners. Many die, but he has raised his national reputation still further among the right, although the left hates him. In 1935 he becomes Chief of the Central General Staff of the Spanish Army and begins to reforms.

As divisions between the left and the right in Spain grow, and as the country's unity unravels after a left-wing alliance wins power in elections, Franco appeals for a state of emergency to be declared. He fears a communist takeover. Instead, Franco is sacked from the General Staff and is sent to the Canary Islands, where the government hopes he is too far away to start a coup. They are wrong. He eventually decides to join the planned right-wing rebellion, on July 18, 1936, he telegraphs the news of a military rebellion from the Islands; this is followed by a rising on the mainland. He moves to Morocco, takes control of the garrison army, and then lands it in Spain. After a march towards Madrid, Franco is chosen by the nationalist forces to be their head of state, due in part to his reputation, distance from political groups, the original figurehead is died, and partly because of his new hunger to lead. Franco's nationalists, aided by German and Italian forces, fight a slow, careful war which is brutal and vicious. Franco wants to do more than win, he wants to 'cleanse' Spain of communism.

Year 1935

He becomes the Chief of the Central General Staff of Spanish Army and with this role he opens his street to control the State and he wins the elections

Year 1936-1939

He starts the Civil War in Spain

TURKEY

Mustafa Kemal Atatürk is born in 1881 in the former Ottoman Empire. As a young man, he is involved with the Young Turks, a revolutionary group that deposed the sultan in 1909. Atatürk leads the Turkish War of Independence and signs the Treaty of Lausanne in 1923, which makes Turkey a republic. He is elected its first president and ushered in reforms that modernized Turkey. He died in 1938.

Mustafa Kemal Atatürk is born in Salonika, in what is then the Ottoman Empire. When he was 12 years old, Mustafa was sent to the military academy in Istanbul. There, his mathematics teacher gave him the name Kemal—meaning "perfection"—because he excelled in academics. He graduated in 1905.

As a young man, Mustafa Kemal becomes a member of the Young Turks, a revolutionary movement of intellectuals. He participates in the Young Turk Revolution of July 1908, which successfully deposed Sultan Abdülhamid II. From 1909 to 1918, Mustafa Kemal holds a number of posts in the Ottoman army. He fights against Italy in the Italo-Turkish War in 1911 and from 1912-1913 he fights in the Balkan Wars. During the second Balkan War he becomes chief of staff before being posted at the Turkish embassy in Bulgaria. He makes a name for himself as the commander of the 19th Division, where his bravery and strategic prowess helped thwart the Allied invasion of the Dardanelles in 1915, and received repeated promotions until the Armistice of Mudros ended the fighting in 1918.

The armistice provisions give the Allies the right to occupy forts that controlled major waterways, as well as any territory that might pose a threat to security. In 1919, Atatürk organizes resistance to these forces, and when the Treaty of Sèvres is signed at the end of Great War, dividing up the Ottoman Empire, Mustafa Kemal demands complete independence for Turkey. The Great National Assembly—the new Turkish parliament—engages in a series of battles with Greek and Armenian forces until Mustafa signs the Treaty of Lausanne on October 29, 1923. This establishes the Republic of Turkey, and Mustafa Kemal became the country's first president.

Mustafa Kemal's first order of business is to modernize and secularize the country, which he does by studying Western governments and adapting their structure for the people of Turkey. He believes that modernization necessarily entailed Westernization, and he establishes a policy of state secularism, with a constitution that separates the government from religion.

Social and economic reforms are a crucial part of his strategy as well. He replaces the Arabic alphabet with a Latin one, introduced the Gregorian calendar and urges people to dress in Western clothes. Mustafa industrializes the nation, establishing state-owned factories around the country as well as a railway network. And a multitude of new laws establishes legal equality between the sexes. Mustafa removes women's veiling laws and gave women the right to vote.

Although he believes he is advancing the country, not all of Mustafa Kemal's reforms are warmly received. His policy of state secularism is particularly controversial, and he is accused of decimating important cultural traditions.

Mustafa Kemal is married briefly from 1923 to 1925, and although he never fathered off-spring, it is said he adopts 12 daughters and one son. Other sources say he has up to 8 children. In 1934, he introduces surnames in Turkey, and he takes the last name Atatürk, which means "Father of the Turks." He dies on November 10, 1938, from cirrhosis of the liver.

Atatürk (1923-1938)

Prime minister from 3 May 1920 to 24 January 1921
president of Turkey from 29 October 1923 to 10 November 1938. Social and economic reforms are a crucial part of his strategy, in fact establishes legal equality between the sexes.

UNITED KINGDOM

Stanley Baldwin was born in 1867 in Bewdley, in the United Kingdom. He is a British Conservative politician, that is elected Prime Minister three times after the Great War and leads his country through the biggest crises of his time.

From 1917 to 1921 he is the Financial Secretary of the Treasury, and in 1921 he serves as the President of the Board of Trade. The year after he becomes the Chancellor of the Exchequer and sets the British Great War debt to the United States, that results being not favorable for the UK. In 1923 he is first nominated Prime Minister and then again in 1924. During these years he leads his country through a period of financial and internal crisis. From 1931 to 1935, although he is not Prime Minister, he holds many of MacDonald's functions during his government.

In 1933, with his rise to power, Hitler is first recognized as an international threat. However, UK fears a rearmament and a strict foreign policy in order to contrast the Führer and his allied Mussolini. For this reason it tries to solve the situation intervening with the policy of the *appeasement*, establishing a series of concessions to Germany and Italy in order to avoid their expansionism and a possible future conflict. This policy is then continued during the last, but hardest years of government of Stanley Baldwin from 1935 to 1937. In 1935 UK and Germany sign an agreement that allows the latter to rebuild its navy beyond the limits set by the Treaty of Versailles and without consulting Italy or France.

Another famous episode of appeasement happened during the Abyssinian War. In October 1935 Mussolini launches an attack on Abyssinia and the League of Nations declares Italy to be the aggressor and imposes sanctions, but coal and oil are not included; blocking these, it is thought, would provoke war. Britain and above all France are anxious to keep Mussolini away from an alliance with Hitler and so they make Italy join them in the protests against German rearmament. A month later British and French ministers secretly agree to concede two-thirds of Abyssinia to Italy, but the pact is discovered and blocked. However, within some months Mussolini captures this land and Victor Emmanuel III is proclaimed its Emperor. Soon after the League stops the sanctions.

When in 1936 Hitler sends his troops to the Rhineland, that was demilitarized after the Great War, Baldwin and UK underestimate the risk of a gradual German expansion and do not impose any sanction. These actions put Hitler in a strong position.

Eventually, during the Spanish Civil War many nations follow the principle of non-intervention, in order to avoid the spread of the conflict throughout Europe. In 1936 Britain and France propose the Non-Intervention Agreement and create the Non-Intervention Committee, which is then joined by Italy and Germany, supporting Franco and the Soviet Union endorsing the Republican faction. The committee sets up a plan to control materials arriving to Spain, which is totally unsuccessful, because is broken by every nation that signed it. Great Britain is the only one faithful to it.

During these years the British government has also to face the problem of the Indian struggle for independence. The British answer to the boycotts and marches organized by Gandhi, the Indian leader for freedom, is very harsh and results in thousands of arrests and deaths. The biggest repression is the one following the Salt March in 1930, against the salt taxation, after which 60,000 Indians are imprisoned. This is not enough to stop Indian protests and their thirst for freedom and around Europe the Indian cause is known more day by day. However, British leaders have too many interest in having India under their control and a full independence is far beyond.

Arthur Neville Chamberlain was born in 1869 in Birmingham and he is the prime minister of United Kingdom from 1937, succeeding Baldwin. He is considered the biggest representative of the policy of he *appeasement* and conducts a massive rearmament.

He is best known for the British reaction after the Anschluss and his management of the Munich Agreement. After the Great War the new state of German-Austria (then Austria) is created. The majority of Austrians want to join Germany and the constitutions of both these states proclaim a future unification, which is, however, forbidden by the Paris Peace Treaties. With the advent of Hitler, Austrians begin to fear Germany, but the Führer sees himself as the defender of the unification. The Austrian chancellor understands that Britain and France will not help his country against the German threat and resigns in favor of Seyss-Inquart, a pro Nazi. Soon after German troops invade Austria, without finding any opposition. The other countries respond mildly, above all UK, with Chamberlain that states that nothing would happen, if Austria was well armed. Hitler understands that his most ferocious rivals, UK and France, are not likely to stop him harshly.

In September 1938, Chamberlain tries in every way to prevent the outbreak of a general European war over Hitler's demand that Czechoslovakia cede the Sudetenland, a German speaking region, to Germany. Chamberlain thinks that every measure shall be taken in order to avoid a war as the Great one and that losing

Czechoslovakia will not create a high risk, as this state has existed for only 20 years and is not very powerful. The Munich Conference is held, with the participation of England, France, Italy and Germany and it is decided that Hitler will complete the invasion of Sudetenland. Czechoslovakia is now defenseless and stops to exist. Chamberlain signs a peace treaty with Hitler, returns to England proclaiming peace and is seen as a hero. Nonetheless, he immediately orders the acceleration of the British rearmament.

Baldwin (1919-1937)	Financial crisis, leader of appeasement, non-intervention in Spanish Civil War, against independence of colonies
Chamberlain (1937-1940)	leader of appeasement, rearmament, fears a war against Hitler

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Thomas Woodrow Wilson (Staunton, 28 December 1856) was an American politician.

He is the 28th president of the United States (in office from 1913 to 1921), while previously he was governor of the state of New Jersey; also an academic man, he served as rector of the University of Princeton.

He becomes the second President of the United States of the Democratic Party, after Andrew Jackson, to be re-elected for a second term. In 1919 he is awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.

Wilson is remembered for being the President of the United States in such a turbulent and crucial historical moment as the Great War and the immediate post-war period and having played an important role especially at the Paris Peace Conference in which he imposes the United States, for a long time secondary economic and military power, to a dominant role on the international chessboard. With his new political line for this Wilson was the first US president to have a very important weight among the great world leaders of the moment.

In foreign policy Wilson faces greater challenges than any other president since the time of Abraham Lincoln. Deciding whether to bring the US into the Great War put a strain on his leadership skills. He keeps the United States neutral during the first years of the war; this contributed to his re-election of 1916: however, after increasing pressures, the United States enter the conflict with a formal declaration of war on Germany on 6 April 1917; a declaration of war on Austria-Hungary is followed on 7 December of the same year.

After the Great War, Wilson undertakes with varying success, to promote his idea of reorganizing the world on an ethnic basis: on 8 January 1918 Wilson holds his famous speech of the Fourteen points, advancing the proposal of a League of Nations, an organization that should have aimed at maintaining territorial integrity and political independence, both for large nations and for small ones. The most innovative point of Wilson's proposal is that of the so-called "right of self-determination" for every people, understand as ethnic community: according to this principle every ethnic group had to have its national state.

Wilson intends the Fourteen Points as a means of ending the war and achieving a just peace for all nations. He arrives in Versailles on December 4, 1918 for the 1919 Peace Conference.

In the end also the other winning powers (France and Great Britain in particular) accepts the principles of nationality and self-determination of the peoples, and the consequent dissolution of the multinational empires (Austria-Hungary and Ottoman Empire). The principle of nationality is the basis for the construction of democratic Europe and national states.

Despite this, President Wilson is certainly not in favor of the application of the London Pact, from which he does not feel bound, disfavoring the Italians who lived beyond those that were the borders decided at the end of the Great War. Evidently Wilson is in favor of the aspirations of Serbia which, during the war, does not show itself to the height of Austria-Hungary losing many battles and being helped by the Royal Italian Army.

For his work to the peace treaties, in 1919 he is awarded the Nobel Peace Prize to Wilson: the honors balanced the bitterness of not being able to convince his opponents in Congress, like Henry Cabot Lodge, to support the resolution that engaged the US to enter the League of Nations. According to Wilson, US participation was essential to maintaining lasting peace in the world. The Treaty of Versailles also caused serious economic problems for Germany, which caused a fall in domestic consumption which would have led to the Great Depression: Wilson's opponents believe that, by supporting the treaty, they would have caused an economic disaster.

On September 25, 1919 Wilson is seized by a slight stroke, which was not made public. A week later, on October 2, Wilson suffers a second and more serious attack that make him almost totally incapacitated. Although the severity of his impairment is kept secret until his death, Wilson is kept away from his vice president Thomas R. Marshall, his government and parliamentarians visiting the White House for the remainder of his presidency.

He dies in Washington on February 3, 1924.

Franklin Delano Roosevelt (January 30, 1882) is the 32nd American president who leads the United States through the Great Depression, greatly expanding the powers of the federal government through a series of programs and reforms known as the New Deal. Stricken with polio in 1921, Roosevelt (commonly known as FDR) spends much of his adult life in a wheelchair. Roosevelt's social programs reinvented the role of government in Americans' lives.

On March 12, 1933, just eight days after first taking office, U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt initiates his first of more than 30 fireside chats.

Within his first 100 days after taking office in March of 1933, President Franklin D. Roosevelt calls for a "New Deal" for Americans, proposing sweeping economic reforms to address the Great Depression. The greatest crisis in American history since the Civil War, 13 million Americans are unemployed and hundreds of banks are closed. Roosevelt orders the temporary closure on all banks to halt the run on deposits. He forms a "Brain Trust" of economic advisers who designed the "alphabet agencies" such as the AAA (Agricultural Adjustment Administration), to support farm prices by reducing agricultural production through subsidies; the CCC (Civilian Conservation Corps), to employ young unmarried men to work refurbishing public lands and national parks; and the NRA (National Recovery Administration), which regulates wages and prices. Other agencies insure bank deposits, regulates the stock market, subsidizes mortgages and provided relief to the unemployed.

By 1936 the U.S. economy shows signs of improvement: Gross national product is up 34 percent, and unemployment has dropped from 25 percent to 14 percent. But Franklin D. Roosevelt faces criticism for increases government spending, unbalanced budgets and what some perceived as a move toward socialism. During the mid-1930s, several New Deal acts are declared unconstitutional by the U.S. Supreme Court. Roosevelt retaliates by proposing to "pack" the court with justices more favorable to his reforms. Many in Congress, including some Democrats, rejects the idea. By 1938, negative publicity, a continuing sluggish economy and Republican victories in midterm elections virtually ends Roosevelt's ability to pass more reform legislation.

Polio and Paralysis

In 1921 at the age of 39, Franklin D. Roosevelt is diagnosed with polio while vacationing at Campobello Island, New Brunswick, Canada. At first refusing to accept that he is permanently paralyzed, Roosevelt tried numerous therapies and even bought the Warm Springs resort in Georgia seeking a cure. Despite his efforts, he never regains the use of his legs. He later establishes a foundation at Warm Springs to help others, and institutes the March of Dimes program that eventually funds an effective polio vaccine.

For a time, Franklin Roosevelt is resigned to being a victim of polio, believing his political career to be over. But his wife Eleanor and political confidante Louis Howe encourages him to continue on. Over the next several years, Roosevelt works to improve his physical and political image. He teaches himself to walk short distances in his braces. And he is careful not to be seen in public using his wheelchair.

In 1910, at age 28, Roosevelt is invited to run for the New York state senate. He runs as a Democrat in a district that has voted Republican for the past 32 years. Through hard campaigning and the help of his name, he wins the seat in a Democratic landslide.

As a state senator, Roosevelt opposes elements of the Democratic political machine in New York. This wins him the ire of party leaders but gained him national notoriety and valuable experience in political tactics and intrigue.

During the 1912 National Democratic Convention, Roosevelt supports presidential candidate Woodrow Wilson and is rewarded with an appointment as Assistant Secretary of the Navy, the same job his idol, Theodore Roosevelt, has used to catapult himself to the presidency.

In 1914, Franklin Roosevelt, decides to run for the U.S. Senate seat for New York. The proposition is doomed from the start, as he lacks White House support. President Wilson needs the Democratic political machine to get his social reforms pass and ensure his reelection. He could not support Franklin Roosevelt, who has made too many political enemies among New York Democrats. Roosevelt was soundly defeat in the primary election and learns a valuable lesson that national stature could not defeat a well-organized local political organization.

Still, Franklin D. Roosevelt takes to Washington politics and finds his career thriving as he develops personal relationships. At the 1920 Democratic Convention he accepts the nomination for vice president, as James M. Cox's running mate. The pair is soundly defeated by Republican Warren G. Harding in the general election, but the experience gave Roosevelt national exposure.

Roosevelt repaired his relationship with New York's Democratic political machine. He appears at the 1924 and 1928 Democratic National Conventions to nominate New York governor Al Smith for president, which increased his national exposure.

Following the stock market crash of 1929, Republicans are blamed for the Great Depression. Sensing opportunity, Franklin D. Roosevelt begins his run for the presidency by calling for government intervention in the economy to provide relief, recovery and reform. His upbeat, positive approach and personal charm helps him defeat Republican incumbent Herbert Hoover in November, 1932.

When FDR runs for his second term in 1936, he is re-elected to office on November 3, 1936 in a landslide against Alfred M. "Alf" Landon, the governor of Kansas.

Foreign Policy

In 1933 Franklin D. Roosevelt steps away from the unilateral principle of the Monroe Doctrine and establishes the Good Neighbor Policy with Latin America. Since the end of Great War, America has hold an isolationist policy in foreign affairs, and by the early 1930s, Congress passed the Neutrality Acts to prevent the United States from becoming entangled in foreign conflicts. However, as military conflicts emerged in Asia and Europe, Roosevelt tries to assist China in its war with Japan and declares that France and Great Britain were America's "first line of defense" against Nazi Germany.

Wilson (1913-1921)

28th president of the United States, he remains in charge until his death on February 3, 1924. Wilson is remembered for being the President of the United States in such a turbulent and crucial historical moment as the Great War and the immediate post-war period and having played an important role especially at the Paris Peace Conference

Roosevelt (1933-1945)

32nd American President who leads the United Sates through the Great Depression. A large part of his fame is due to the vast and radical program of economic and social reforms carried out between 1933 and 1937, known as the New Deal, thanks to which the United States managed to overcome the great depression of the early 1930s. Among its most important innovations should be noted the Social Security Act - with which were introduced for the first time in the United States social assistance and unemployment benefits and old age - and the creation of the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), the Federal Agency for Stock Market Control.

YUGOSLAVIA

Alexander I of Yugoslavia, born in Cettigne on December 16, 1888, is the king of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes (1921-1929) and first king of Yugoslavia (1929-1934).

After the Great War ended on December 1, 1918, Alexander received a delegation from the national council of the newborn State of the Slovenes, Croats and Serbs who asked him to annex their nation which has no international recognition to the Kingdom of Serbia. Alexander accepts and that same day the kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes is born and Peter I becomes king.

On 16 August 1921 Pietro I dies leaving the crown to Alexander. In the same year he promotes Little Intesa, an alliance with Czechoslovakia and Romania.

In August 1928 the Serbian nationalist deputy Punisa Racic wounds the colleague of the Croatian Peasant Party Stjepan Radic: the episode creates strong political instability and gives rise to numerous inter-ethnic conflicts. On 6 January 1929 Alexander dissolves the parliament, revokes the institution and institutes a dictatorship. All the political, trade union and religious organizations are forbidden, the censorship of the press is imposed. A special tribunal for the defense of the state is created that pursued all political crimes, lese majesty and anti-national behavior.

The Yugoslav Integralism policy is launched in which all ethnic divisions has to end to create a united nation.

On October 3, 1929, the official name of the State in the Kingdom of Yugoslavia has changed.

On 3 September 1931 Alexander gives the kingdom a new constitution. The Parliament is divided into a high chamber of royal nomination and a national assembly elected by male universal suffrage; the sovereign is entitled to appoint the Head of Government and Ministers who has to answer only to the king and not to the Parliament.

The foreign policy of Alexander I has always intended not so much to the conquest as to the maintenance of the territories of his kingdom. The king feared that the boundaries established by the Treaty of Versailles could be questioned, for this reason he maintains relations with France and the united kingdom and interwoven political relations with the Romanian, Czechoslovakian and Greek neighbors.

The small agreement is more strengthened; in 1927 the sovereign tightened a new alliance with France and in 1934 he creates a pact of friendship and collaboration with Romania, Greece and Turkey.

In October 1934 the sovereign is invited by the French prime minister for a state visit.

Alexander first embarks for Marseilles where he landed on October 9th, welcomes by the French Foreign Minister Louis Barthou. The two climb into an open car, precede and follow by escort, who take them to the Prefecture building. At 4:15 pm, Vlado Cernozemski, belonging to the Macedonian Internal Revolutionary organization which aim at the independence of Macedonia from Yugoslavia, approach the car and open fire. The escort agents do the same by killing the bomber. Alexander I and the French minister die.

The murder of Alexander I is the first movie murder in history.

Since the heir to the throne Peter is not yet old enough to become king, Prince Paul is proclaimed regent.

Paolo I of Yugoslavia, also known as Paul Karadordević (St. Petersburg, 27 April 1893), is a prince of the Karadordević family, regent of Yugoslavia from 1934. Son of Prince Arsenio, brother of Peter I of Serbia is a directed cousin by Alexander I of Yugoslavia. He assumes the regency on October 9, 1934 after the murder of his cousin Alexander I in Marseilles, guiding the fate of the country, as in the adhesion to the Tripartite Pact, with the Axis Powers, which took place in Vienna on March 25, 1941.

Alexander I of Yugoslavia
(1921-1934)

He becomes king on 16th August 1921, after king Pietro's death. King of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes and later king of Yugoslavia, on 6 January 1929 Alexander dissolves the parliament, revokes the institution and institutes a dictatorship. The foreign policy of Alexander I has always intended not so much to the conquest as to the maintenance of the territories of his kingdom

Paolo I of Yugoslavia (1934-1941)

He guides the country after Alexander's death as in the adhesion to the Tripartite Pact, with the Axis Powers

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