

UNIT

14

Outbreak of World War II and its Impact in Colonies

Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- The causes, course and results of World War II
- The Chinese Revolution
- Nationalist Movements and Struggles for Independence in Indonesia and Philippines



Introduction

The international order that emerged after the First World War, based on the concept of collective security, collapsed. In September 1939 Europe plunged into a terrible war again. The war of 1939–45 was much more of a world war than that of even 1914–18. This was partly because of the part played by Japan. In consequence the loss of life, the damage to property and the cost of the war was much greater. Following the end of the Second World War, a wave of unrest swept colonies and nationalist agitation gained greater force. This set in motion a process of decolonisation in Asia and Africa. In Southeast Asia, the Dutch fought a losing war but finally conceded independence to Indonesia, the former Dutch East Indies, in 1949. The developments in Indonesia, a Dutch colony and Philippines, an American colony are explored as case studies in this lesson. In China, people turned away from the corrupt and incompetent nationalists. A civil war in China resulted in the establishment of People's Republic of China under Mao Tse Tung.

14.1 Second World War: Causes

In the beginning of the war, with Great Britain and France opposing Germany and with Italy remaining temporarily neutral and later joining Germany, the line-up of the two sides in both world wars was similar. The notable difference was that Japan aligned with Germany instead of with the Western powers. Russia and the USA did not enter the conflict until two years after it began. The methods of warfare had changed during the Second World War. Trench warfare gave way to aerial bombing. No distinction was made between combatants and civilians in the Second World War. Casualties in the Second World War were therefore heavy.

Let us first trace the circumstances that led to the outbreak of the War.

(a) The Unjust Nature of the Peace Treaty

The terms imposed upon Germany at the end of First World War were harsh. Stripped off its colonies, the size of the German army was drastically reduced. Germany was forced to cede

Alsace and Lorraine to France and to agree to the temporary occupation by French troops of the Saar valley. Germany was also compelled to hand over to Poland large parts of the industrial area of Silesia. Further Germany was to pay an impossible sum (6600 million pounds) in reparation. These terms gave rise to a strong feeling of injustice in Germany and had much to do with the subsequent success of the Nazi Politics. Italy felt aggrieved as Dalmatia, claimed to be predominantly Italian, was incorporated in the new state of Yugoslavia. Reduced to the status of a small republic, Austria was not allowed to unite with Germany as the combination would be a threat to France.

(b) Failure of the League of Nations

The League of Nations, envisaged as an international body to avert another world war, turned out to be an alliance of the victors against the vanquished. The seeds for another war were sowed ever since the Treaty of Versailles was signed.

From 1918 to 1933 a series of conferences were held to eliminate threats of war. In 1925, representatives of the chief European powers met at Locarno, a Swiss town, where Germany and France agreed to respect the Rhine frontiers, as established in the Versailles treaty. The next agreement widely appreciated was the Kellogg-Briand Pact of 1928. Though the US did not become a member of the League of Nations, it participated in this meet. The outcome of this pact was the pledge of all nations of the world to renounce war as “an instrument of national policy”. But the League of Nations was not strong enough to enforce these agreements when some countries defied them.



Kellogg-Briand Pact

When Hitler came to power in 1933, a Disarmament Conference was organised by the League of Nations at Geneva. The issue was the German rearmament plan on a par with France. The French refused to agree to this proposal, while Britain was willing to concede Germany's demand. Hitler's response to French refusal was withdrawal of Germany from the conference and from the League of Nations. A plebiscite in Germany showed enormous support in favour of Hitler's step. Encouraged, in March 1935, Hitler announced Germany's intention of building up an army by conscription to over half a million men. This was the first breach of the Treaty of Versailles. The League of Nations attended by Britain, France and Italy condemned Germany's action but took no further steps. Britain even went to the extent of negotiating a naval agreement. According to this agreement, Germany could build up to 35 per cent of Britain's naval strength.



Disarmament Conference, Geneva

Italy invaded Ethiopia in 1935. Emperor Haile Selassie of Ethiopia appealed to the League of Nations, but received no help.

(c) Economic Depression of 1930s

The most important economic cause of World War II was the Great Depression. The Depression intensified economic nationalism. Hit by the problems of unemployment and business stagnation, governments resorted to high tariffs to preserve the home market for consumption of their home products. This resulted in an expansionist policy leading to

the conquest of neighboring territories as a means of solving economic problems. Japan took the lead. In 1931 it reacted to the global economic crisis by seizing the Chinese northern region of Manchuria. In the face of decline of Japanese exports of raw silk and cotton cloth, Japanese militarists came up with this idea so that Manchuria could be a market.

(d) Aspirations of German Big Business and Grievances of German Patriots

Britain, France, the US and the USSR each controlled vast areas as colonies across the world. Germany, the most powerful industrial country in continental Europe, had no colonies. This prompted German big business to campaign vigorously to break the restraints imposed by the Treaty of Versailles. It wanted to recover German territory lost to Poland, absorb the German-speaking Austrian state and Czech border land, the Sudetenland. Under Nazi rule there was convergence between the requirements of big business and Nazi ideology.

Powers like Great Britain, the United States, France and Russia had their empire extending over one fourth of land area of the earth. Germany, Italy and Japan seemed poor by comparison. German patriots openly articulated their grievance by stating that the average German citizen had only .004 of square mile of living space at his disposal, whereas the average Briton could draw upon the wealth and economic opportunities of almost three square miles of imperial territory.

(e) Mussolini's Expansionist Policy

Mussolini's Italy sought to expand its colonial empire by grabbing Ethiopia to add to its colonial possessions such as Somaliland, Eritrea and Libya. It looked for an opportunity to seize Albania from Yugoslavia. The establishment of an economy based on military state capitalism encouraged the drive to armed expansion. The arms industries needed raw materials and the only way to obtain the resources required was to grab extra territory.



Mussolini and Hitler

Britain and France condemned Mussolini's invasion of Ethiopia and this helped Hitler to establish close relationship with Italy. This was the beginning of Rome-Berlin Axis

(f) Japan's Imperial Policy

The German approach was emulated in East Asia by Japan. It had already taken Taiwan and Korea as colonies, and controlled Manchuria. The government that came up after a military coup in Japan (1936) began to cast its covetous eye over Dutch East Indies, the British colonies in Malaya and Singapore, the French colonies in Indochina and the US-controlled Philippines.

(g) Responsibility of Hitler for the War

(i) Incorporation of Saar into Germany

Under the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, a plebiscite was to be held in the Saar in January 1935. The people were to decide whether they wished to join Germany or France, or remain under League of Nations' control. Ninety per cent voted for a return to Germany. In March 1935 the Saar was incorporated into Germany. This was a morale booster for Hitler.

(ii) Annexation of Rhineland

In 1936 Hitler flouted the peace settlement by sending troops to occupy Rhineland, the area of Germany demilitarised by the Treaty of Versailles. If the French had resisted, the Germans would have withdrawn. The French army at that time was stronger than the German, but economic distress caused by

the Great Depression and political instability leading to the resignation of Prime Minister Edouard Daladier rendered France incapable of resisting the breach of the Treaty of Versailles by Germany.



Rhineland in German occupation

(iii) Forcible Merger of Austria with Germany

Hitler, an Austrian by birth, had always wanted Austria to be part of Germany. In February 1938, Hitler summoned the Austrian Chancellor Schuschnigg to Berchtesgaden, a mountain town in the Bavarian Alps, for a discussion. The Austrian Chancellor was given a Hobson's choice – either to legalise Nazi Party in Austria and integrate Austria's economy with that of Germany or face a German invasion. Austria has lost the support of Italy with the formation of the Rome–Berlin Axis. Schuschnigg was therefore left with no choice but to choose the first option. At the instance of Hitler, the Austrian Chancellor cancelled the proposed plebiscite in Austria and formed a Nazi government there. Thereupon the German army entered Vienna to take control of the country.

(iv) Occupation of Sudetenland

Encouraged by the lack of resistance from major European powers, Hitler turned his attention towards Czechoslovakia. In June 1938, Hitler sent directions to his army about his intention of invading Sudetenland. A systematic Nazi propaganda that their German subjects were being subjected to harsh treatment in

Sudetenland was launched. The British Prime Minister, Neville Chamberlain, after consulting the French and the Czechs, eventually agreed to cede to Germany all territories where more than half the inhabitants were German. But to the warmonger Hitler, this proposition was unacceptable. He was keen to avoid any plebiscite in this matter. So he wanted his army to occupy Sudetenland before such a plebiscite could take place.

Munich Agreement

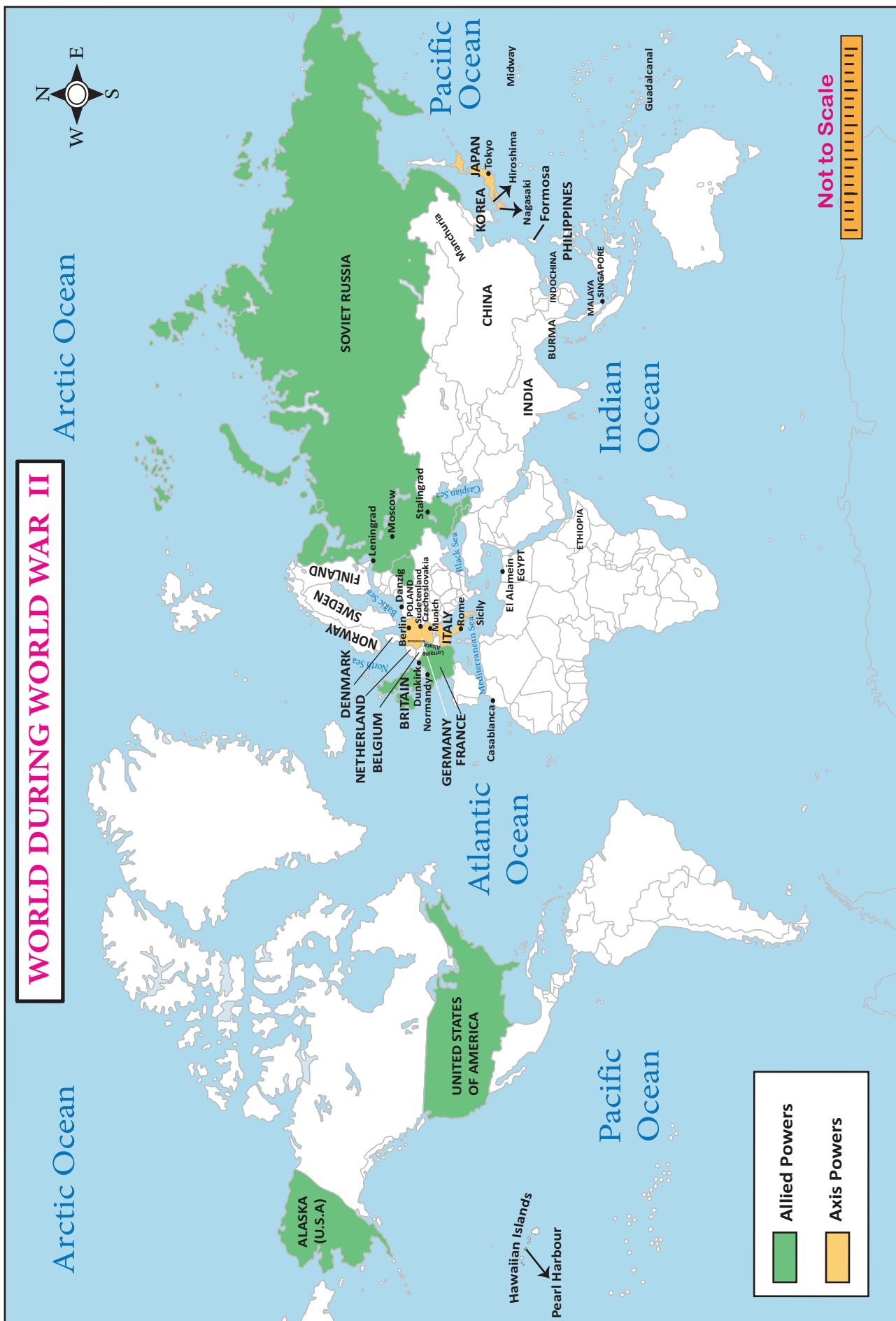
The mood in London was in favour of a war against Hitler. But Chamberlain and his counterpart in France were bent on buying peace at any cost – a policy called 'appeasement'. A conference was held at Munich where the British, French, German and Italian premiers agreed that the German army should occupy the Sudetenland, as demanded by Hitler, on 1 October and that parts of Czechoslovakia should go to Poland and Hungary.



Munich Agreement

(v) Aggression against Czechoslovakia

The Czechs felt betrayed. The new frontiers of Czechoslovakia had been guaranteed by the four powers at the Munich Conference. Chamberlain claimed that the deal had averted another massive European war. But using the conflict between the Slovaks and the Czechs as an excuse, Hitler sent German forces to occupy the conflict zone.



Nazi–Soviet Pact

The guarantees that Britain and France had given Poland were considered weak without Russia's help. During the early summer of 1939, Britain and France negotiated with Russia. But partly because of mutual distrust and partly because Russia was not prepared for a war against Germany, no progress could be made. Russians preferred peace and guarantee for their territories. As Germany offered both, in August 1939 the Nazi–Soviet (Non-aggression) Pact was signed in the Kremlin. The secret clauses in the pact were: Eastern Europe was to be demarcated into German and Russian spheres of influence and Poland was to be divided.



Nazi–Soviet Pact

(vi) Invasion of Poland and Outbreak of War

In order to carry out Hitler's larger plan of conquering the whole of Europe, Germany invaded Poland on 1 September 1939 on the ground that Poland had been planning with its allies, Great Britain and France, to encircle and dismember Germany and that Poles were persecuting ethnic Germans. In two days Britain gave the ultimatum: unless German troops were withdrawn from Poland, Britain and Germany would be at war. The ultimatum was ignored and the Second World War began.



Hitler

Stages of War

War in Europe

In the first few years of the War the German army seemed unstoppable. Poland was easily defeated within two weeks and divided between Germany and the Soviet Union in a second agreement signed in Moscow in September 1939. In April 1940 Germany occupied Norway. With this annexation, Hitler ensured the protection of Germany's supply of iron ore from Sweden apart from obtaining naval and air bases with which to strike at Britain. On 10 May 1940 Germany invaded the Netherlands, Luxembourg, Belgium and France, launching its *blitzkrieg* (the lightning strike).

In six weeks all were defeated and British forces were expelled from continental Europe. About 198,000 British troops as well as 140,000 Allied troops, mainly French, had to be taken to the beaches in Dunkirk and evacuated in boats and small ships under heavy fire (May–June 1940). The French soldiers evacuated from Dunkirk formed the nucleus of the Free French army under General de Gaulle, who ran the French government in exile to fight the Fascists. But for the Dunkirk evacuation, Britain would have found it difficult to regroup.



Dunkirk Evacuation

Emboldened by Hitler's success, Italy joined Germany and invaded France in June and Egypt in September 1940. Around this time Japan also joined the Axis powers. Hitler expected Britain to sue for peace. But Prime Minister Churchill, who replaced Chamberlain, refused to compromise. The German air force, in an attempt to force a surrender, began to attack



specific targets, especially the ports, airfields and industrial installations. In September 1940, London was bombed – an operation known as the *Blitz*. By October 1940, night bombing raids on London and other industrial cities became routine. However, the German strategy failed because with the aid of the newly developed device ‘radar’ for detecting aircraft while still at a distance, the fighter planes of the Royal Air Force (Spitfires and Hurricanes) inflicted severe losses on the German bombers. In the Battle of Britain (in the air between July and October 1940), Hitler suffered his first defeat. But the U-Boat [a German Submarine] war in the Atlantic was disrupting British trade.



German U - Boat

In November 1940, a decision taken by Germany to invade Russia was deferred due to the campaign in the Balkans (April) against Yugoslavia and Greece. On 22 June 1941 the invasion of Soviet Union commenced. After a series of victories, German forces approached Leningrad and Moscow. By 1941 Hitler’s empire in Europe had reached its zenith.

German rule everywhere was repressive, brutal and exploitative. More than seven million Europeans, from France to Russia, were taken as forced labour to Germany. One third of Germany’s war costs was met by tribute extracted from occupied Europe. Nazi racism was directed against the Jews, communists and gypsies. Jews were imprisoned in concentration camps, and about six million Jews were murdered in a state-sponsored genocide using industrial methods of extermination (called the Holocaust).

The War in Asia and the Pacific

German victories in the Soviet Union prompted Japanese leaders to go on an offensive in Southeast Asia and the Pacific. The decision for war with the US was taken in November 1941. On 7 December Japanese aircraft attacked the Pearl Harbour naval base in the Hawaiian islands, inflicting severe damages to the US Pacific Fleet. Japan then occupied English colonial territories in Burma, Malaya, Singapore (where the British beat a shameful retreat, leaving the population under the mercy of the Japanese) and the Dutch possession of East Indies.

Pearl Harbour Incident and its Fallout

The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbour, instead of crushing the morale of the American people, galvanised them into action. Until then kept out of the war due to American public opinion, the



United States declared war on Japan, thus making it an absolute world war. Britain and China joined the US. Under the Lend-Lease system, President Roosevelt had already committed the US government to aid the opponents of Fascism, in the context of Italy and Japan joining Germany. The direct involvement of the US greatly expanded the resources of the Allies as America brought more vehicles, ships and aircrafts than all the other fighting countries put together. In August 1942, US forces commanded by MacArthur began to play a prominent role in the Pacific. The naval battle planned by Admiral Yamamoto resulted in a major Japanese defeat.



Pearl Harbour Attack



The US navy defeated the Japanese navy in the Battle of Midway (4–7 June 1942), which turned the tide in favour of the Allies. The Battle of Guadalcanal in the Solomon Islands was a combined offensive of the army and the navy, and lasted for several months (7 August 1942–9 February 1943). This battle too ended in a crushing defeat for the Japanese. After this, the American forces were able to re-take the Philippines and gradually the Japanese were pushed out of most of their conquered territories. In 1944, the combined British and Indian armies were able to repulse the Japanese who attempted to invade the north-east of India. Then, along with the Chinese, they pushed the Japanese out of Burma, and took over Malaya and Singapore.

The Battle of Stalingrad, 1942

The German strategy of lightning strikes was initially successful in Soviet Russia. But the German army did not succeed in reaching Moscow. It faced the bloodiest battles in world history at Stalingrad. Hitler thought Stalingrad would be a prize catch, as it was a large industrial city producing armaments and tractors. He was also aiming for the rich oil fields of the Caucasus. In addition, seizing the city that bore the name of the Soviet leader Joseph Stalin would add further glory to the image of Hitler. But even after it became clear that the German Army could not hold Stalingrad, Hitler refused to allow a strategic withdrawal. He was scared that the strategic withdrawal from Stalingrad would greatly dent Nazi prestige. Thus, Hitler condemned his best army to cold, starvation and death even as the Soviet army fired by a nationalist spirit fought without respite. The great Soviet counter-offensive in the summer (1942) turned the tide in favour of Soviet Union. Many military historians have argued that the fate of the war was decided in Stalingrad.

The victory at this “Great Patriotic War” set the Red Army on course to storm Berlin. Along with the Allied forces of Britain, France and America, Soviets defeated the German army, effectively ending World War II in Europe.



Battle of Stalingrad

According to one estimate, the total number of Russians dead touched 20 million (13 million soldiers and seven million civilians).

Fall of Mussolini

At the end of 1942, the Allied cause was saved when German forces suffered their first reverses at El Alamein in north Africa. The Battle of El Alamein, fought between the German–Italian army commanded in the field by Erwin Rommel and the British forces, in the deserts of North Africa, led to a German Surrender in May 1943. The Allied forces then invaded Sicily. The same king, Victor Immanuel III, who had handed power to Mussolini in 1922 replaced him with General Badoglio and sued for peace. Mussolini was kept under house arrest. The General Badoglio government of Italy formally signed a surrender in Sicily on 3 September 1943.

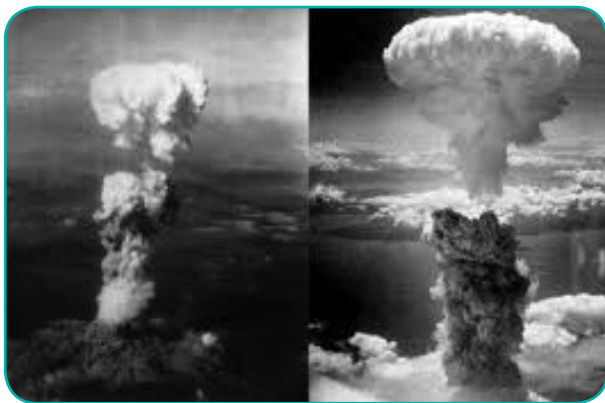
During 1943 there were two high level conferences among the Allies. In January Churchill and Roosevelt met at Casablanca. Here they decided to postpone the invasion of France, which for over four years (1940–44) was literally a German province, until the next year. (The Germans who had occupied France possessed sixty army divisions.) The second conference was at Teheran in Persia in which Stalin was also present. Based on the strategy planned, the Anglo–American invasion of France was fixed for 6 June 1944. The supreme commander of the Allied forces was the American General Eisenhower.

Invasion of Anglo–American Forces and Bombing of Dresden

The Allied forces under the command of Eisenhower invaded Normandy in France. Normandy was cleared of German forces and on 25 August 1944 Paris was liberated. By the beginning of September the Allies had gained control of the whole of the country, and also occupied Belgium. The Allied bombing of Germany (February 13–15, 1945) almost completely destroyed the German city of Dresden. The raids became a symbol of the “terror bombing” campaign against Germany. During this period, altogether 600,000 German citizens were killed. Slowly, the German army was forced back. But the Germans resisted and the war continued for another year.

In 1945 a final assault on Germany brought Western and Soviet forces face to face across central Germany. On April 30, 1945 Soviet forces neared Hitler’s command bunker in central Berlin. Hitler committed suicide. Berlin fell into the hands of Soviets on 2 May. The Soviet army had already captured much of Eastern Europe and Poland.

Dropping of Atomic Bombs and the End of World War II



Atomic Bomb attack on Japan

Despite the defeat of Germany, the Japanese generals refused to surrender. Finally, the US on 6 August 1945 dropped an atomic bomb on Hiroshima and three days later (9 August) on Nagasaki. In the race to develop the atomic bomb, the US had overtaken Germany. Japan surrendered immediately, thereby bringing an

end to World War II. Between 60,000–80,000 people were killed instantly when the bomb was dropped over Hiroshima, and an estimated 140,000 died from its effects before the end of the year. The death toll increased to over 200,000 in subsequent decades, as people died of cancer (leukemia) and other diseases linked to dangerous radiation.

Historians differ in their interpretations of the causes of the war. Some attribute it to the Treaty of Versailles which was harsh and vindictive. So they justify Germany’s desire to change the terms of the treaty. There are others who blame the policy of appeasement followed by Britain and France. A few point out the failure of Britain and France to reach an agreement with the Soviet Union. They not only distrusted the Soviet Union but did not respond to proposals for collective security put forward from 1934 onward. But most historians hold Germany and Hitler responsible. They assert that it was the unscrupulous, ruthless and aggressive policies based on a belligerent nationalism and an ideology of racial (Aryan) purity, plunged the world into six years of devastating warfare. ‘The Second World War was Hitler’s war. He planned it, began it and ultimately lost it.’

Peace Making

The Atlantic Charter, a statement issued by President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill, formed the basis of the settlement of peace. Its essential principles were as follows:

1. No territorial changes without the consent of the people concerned.
2. The right of the people to choose the form of their government.
3. All states to enjoy on equal terms access to the trade and raw materials of the world.
4. Freedom to travel across the sea without hindrance
5. Disarmament of all nations that threaten aggression.



Churchill - Truman - Stalin

Otherwise there was no peace conference. Great Britain, the Soviet Union and the US, represented by Churchill, Stalin and Truman, agreed at the Potsdam meet to create a council of foreign ministers of five Powers – the Big three plus China and France – to continue the necessary preparatory work for the peace settlements. This council became the principal agency for peace-making in Europe. It was agreed upon that peace treaties with Italy, Hungary, Belgium, and Rumania be finalised before dealing treaties with Italy and Germany. Great Britain, USA, USSR and France would draft the Italian treaty, the Big three would draft the three Balkan treaties, Great Britain and Soviet Union would draft for Finland. Then the draft treaties would be considered at a general conference.

Peace Conference, 1946

1500 delegates from 21 nations met at Luxemburg Palace, Paris, from July 26 to 15 October 1946. After a great deal of deliberations the recommendations of the conference were reviewed by the Council of Foreign Ministers and adopted after slight modifications.

Italian Peace treaty: The issue of Trieste dragged for several years. Italy demanded Trieste. Soviet Union had promised it to Yugoslavia. Finally, in 1954, Trieste was divided into Zone A and Zone B. Zone A went to Italy, while Zone B was awarded to Yugoslavia. The Italian reparation was fixed at \$ 260,000,000 (most of it to go to Greece and Yugoslavia).

Reparation to Russia: Hungary, Belgium and Finland were to give \$100,000,000 to Russia. Bulgaria was to pay \$25,000,000 to Yugoslavia and \$4,000,000 to Greece. Rumania agreed to give back Bessarabia, acquired in 1919, and Bukovina to Russia. The Belgium treaties guaranteed the free navigation of the Danube. But it was blocked by Russia. The treaties came into effect from 15 September 1947. But the provisions were either violated or ignored.

Austria: Disputes arose over the claim of Yugoslavia to a portion of Austrian territory in southern Carinthia. Yugoslavia also demanded \$150,000,000 as reparation. The problematic issue of defining German assets could not be resolved even though the commission set up for this purpose met in 85 sessions. The issue of reparation with Russia was settled with the Soviet extension of rights to the oil and shipping facilities in Austria and a cash payment of \$150,000,000 over a six year period in lieu of the German assets. Austria was reestablished as a sovereign, independent and democratic state with the same frontiers it had before the forced union with Germany in 1938. Austria agreed not to enter into political or economic union with Germany in any form.

Germany: The conference held at Potsdam, near Berlin, issued the following formal declarations: 1. East Prussia to be divided into two parts: northern part going to the Soviet Union, and the southern part to Poland. 2. Poland to receive the former free city of Danzig. The military power of Germany was to be totally destroyed, and Germany was to be divided into four occupation zones to be governed by the USSR, Great Britain, the United States and France. Thus substantial portions of pre-war Germany were transferred to the USSR and to Poland. Berlin in the heart of Russian sphere and the rest of the country was divided into four zones. In April 1949 the German Democratic Republic was proclaimed in the Soviet zone. NATO decided to approve the Federal Republic of Germany. In September the newly elected parliament of the Federal Republic of Germany was established.

Poland

Poland moved some 200 miles to the west, losing about 69,000 sq.miles to the Soviet Union and gaining slightly less from Germany in the west. Poland would surrender its eastern provinces to Russia and the existing government of Poland, setup under Soviet aegis, was to be reorganised with the inclusion of democratic leaders from among the Poles.

Japan

Roosevelt, Churchill and Nationalist China's Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek met in Cairo as early as in November 1943 and decided the fate of the Japanese empire. All the territories taken by Japan from China, with the exception of Korea, were to be restored to the Chinese Republic. Korea was to become free and independent. Japan lost all conquests it had made since 1931. It was also obliged to give up Formosa (now Taiwan) and the Pacific islands that it had gained decades earlier.



Churchill - Roosevelt - Stalin

After meeting in a conference at Yalta, in the Crimea (February 1945), Roosevelt, Churchill and Stalin declared their plans for the unconditional surrender of Germany, upon methods of controlling Germany and her allies after the war, and upon the establishment of United Nations Organisation to preserve the peace, the economic organisations, known collectively as the Bretton Woods system, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund and the General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs to achieve post-War reconstruction of the economies which had been devastated by

the War. Unlike after the First World War, this time, Roosevelt was determined that the United States should join the world peace organisation.

Results of the Second World War

The Second World War caused unprecedented hardship. As many as 60 million died, and great cities such as Warsaw, Kiev, Tokyo and Berlin were reduced to rubble. The majority of ports in Europe and many in Asia were destroyed or badly damaged; bridges were blown up; railway locomotives and rolling stock vanished. Millions of people lost their homes. Germany ceased to be a great power. Europe lost its status and prestige. The economy was in a shambles. It was clear that the two dominating powers in the world were the United States and Soviet Russia. The ideological divisions between the two made the post-war cooperation impossible, as we shall see in the next lesson.

Great Britain emerged with enormous prestige, but her position as a world power diminished on account of reduced wealth, and the shrinking of its empire. The Second World War was fatal to many European monarchies. Kingship was abolished in Rumania, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria and Italy. Apart from Britain, it survived only in Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Holland and Belgium and that too only as constitutional monarchies.

The world had been one in its effort to defeat fascism which had threatened world peace. The Allied victory had been underpinned by the popular support for the war effort. The struggle against fascism also empowered the common people. The shared suffering and sacrifice of the war years strengthened the belief in most democracies that governments had an obligation to provide basic care for all citizens. When it was elected in the summer of 1945, for example, the Labour government in Britain moved rapidly to establish a welfare state. It became the government's obligation in Britain to provide insurance against accident, sickness,

old age and unemployment. The rights of women also took a huge step forward as their contribution to the war effort, and their share in the suffering, were recognised. In France and Italy, women finally got the vote.

The most significant outcome of the War was the transformation that had taken place in colonies. The fight for democracy encouraged the nationalist forces to intensify their liberation struggles. The defeat of armed forces of the Western countries by Japan in Southeast Asia and also the initial setback suffered by Britain and France in the War at the hands of Germans sent a clear signal that white men and their states could be defeated. The old empires also realised that the Age of Empire was definitely at the end. The Dutch, for instance, found it difficult to maintain adequate military forces in the huge Indonesia archipelago. In Indo-China the French, supported by the British and later by the USA, made a desperate attempt to hold back its independence. But the French were defeated and forced to withdraw in 1954. The attempt by Britain and France to reassert themselves as global imperial powers in the Suez Crisis of 1956 was doomed. Later the US war against Vietnam turned out to be a shameful failure.

14.2 Chinese Revolution, 1949

China had a long history and through most of historical times was more advanced than Europe. But by 1900, China had lagged behind on most fronts. A particular reason for its downfall was the long corrupt and inept rule of Manchu dynasty since 1650. The landed gentry produced scholar officials called mandarins, who defended the established order with privileged status. The mass of the population, the peasants, suffered from high rents, high taxes and shortage of land. Agricultural production was stagnant. Cultivated areas were densely populated, with the average size of a farm remaining less than an acre. Although China possessed coal and iron ore in abundance, industrial development was slow.



Taiping Rebellion

The oppressive political and economic system triggered a number of risings during the nineteenth century. The most serious was the Taiping Rebellion (1850–1864). That it took fourteen years for the government to crush was an indication of the weakness of the government. Growing European pressure, first the British, and then the French, Germans, Russians and Americans, forced China to cede trading rights at ports to foreigners. The British were twice at war against China (Opium Wars). It was a favourable time for the foreigners as China was preoccupied with the Taiping Rebellion and could offer no resistance. The European-controlled area stretched from Hong Kong to Port Arthur. Shanghai especially became a flourishing port.

The Taiping (meaning great peace) **Rebellion** started as a peasant uprising. But soon it developed into a revolutionary movement under the leadership of Hung Hsiu-chuan, a school teacher from a peasant family. He preached equality between people, stressing on equal division of the land, and an end to old social distinctions. In 1853, the movement's membership soared to two million and succeeded in taking over Nanking and administering 40 per cent of the country as a state of its own. But the Taiping leadership did nothing to improve the status of peasants. A reorganised imperial army, with modern weapons supplied by Britain and France, under the British army officer Major Gordon quelled the rebellion. Nanking was retrieved in 1864.



First Opium War

Opium Wars: The first Opium War was the result of China's attempt to suppress the illegal opium trade, as the human cost of the Chinese addiction was deadly. British traders were the primary source of opium supply in China. The treaty of Nanking signed at the end of first Opium War (1842) opened the doors to Britain. China ceded Hong Kong and paid an indemnity.

The first war broke out when Chinese officials boarded a British-registered ship, the *Arrow*, docked in Canton and arrested crew members for piracy. The ship belonged to the Chinese, the crew were Chinese. But the ship flew the British flag because of a permit from the Hong Kong government. The permit had actually expired. Nonetheless the British government, which was looking for a pretext to go to war so that it could force China into granting more trading concessions, responded by sending a warship. Fighting broke out and France, using the excuse of the murder of a French missionary (February 1856), joined Great Britain. This time a British and French force destroyed the Summer Palace in Peking. Finally, in 1860, China succumbed to the superior British military strength and the Beijing Agreement was reached. It opened Chinese ports to trade, allowed foreign ships down the Yangtze, and permitted the free movement of foreign missionaries within China. Most importantly, it allowed the legal trade of British opium within China.

The weakness of China became very clear when the newly modernised Japan began its acts of aggression in 1894. By the peace treaty of 1895, Formosa went to Japan and Korea became independent. Thereupon thousands of European businessmen began to exploit Chinese trade. Christian missionaries landed in China and began to spread their faith inland. European activities and their interference in local administration produced hatred of foreigners among the Chinese. In 1900, on top of the discontent resulting from infiltration of foreigners, there came two successive harvest failures, and devastating floods caused by the Yellow River. The Boxer Rebellion broke out.



Boxer Rebellion

Boxer Rebellion (1899–1901): Boxer was a name that foreigners gave to a Chinese secret society known as the *Yihequan* ("Righteous and Harmonious Fists"). Although the Boxers came from all sections of society, many were peasants, particularly from Shandong province, which had been struck by natural disasters. The original aim of the Boxers was the destruction of the Manchu dynasty and also of the Westerners who enjoyed a privileged position in China. The Boxers burned churches and foreign residences and killed suspected Chinese Christians on sight. A multi-national force, seized Peking, as the Empress and her court fled. Nearly 100,000 people died. The great majority of those killed were civilians, including thousands of Chinese Christians and 200 to 250 foreign nationals (mostly Christian missionaries).



The Boxer Rebellion formally ended with the signing of the Boxer Protocol on 7 September 1901. By the terms of the agreement, forts protecting Beijing were to be destroyed. Boxers and Chinese government officials involved in the uprising were to be punished. Foreign consulates were permitted to station troops in Beijing for their defence. China was prohibited from importing arms for two years and it was agreed to pay more than \$330 million in reparations to the foreign nations concerned.

In October 1911 a mutiny broke out among the troops in Wuchang. This is regarded as the formal beginning of the revolution. The mutineers soon captured the Wuchang mint and arsenal, and city after city declared war against the Manchus. Revolution broke out in the valley of the Yangtze and soon spread to the greater part of central and south China. On New Year's Day 1912 the provinces involved in the revolt proclaimed a republic with its capital at Nanking. On hearing the news of the uprising, Sun Yat-sen arrived in Shanghai and was immediately elected provisional President of the new Chinese Republic. Yuan Shih-kai, who had earlier served as a minister in the Manchu administration, was recalled by the Regent who was acting for his infant son to handle the revolt. But gauging the mood of the people Yuan advised the abdication of the Emperor.

On February 12, 1912 an Edict of Abdication was issued and the Manchu dynasty (Qing government) vanished from the Chinese political stage. In the following month, Sun Yat-sen, in the interests of unity, resigned in favour of Yuan, since the latter had total control over the army.

Yuan Shih-kai's Unpopularity

In the four years of his administration, Yuan Shih-kai proved that he was opposed to both democracy and republicanism. Yuan went on to ban the Kuomintang, the Nationalist Party, and seize the provinces under its control. On 10 October 1913, Yuan was installed as the full-fledged president of

Sun Yat-sen (1866–1925)

Dr. Sun Yat-sen, born in a poor family, was educated in a mission school and became a medical doctor. His interest in politics prompted him to participate



in a rising against the Qing government in 1895. The rising failed and Sun Yat-sen had to spend the next sixteen years in exile. He spent his time in spreading his revolutionary ideas amongst Chinese students and others living overseas. In 1905, he founded a political party in Tokyo, which became the Kuomintang or National People's Party.

Sun Yat-sen championed three principles: Nationalism, Democracy, and Socialism. In 1894 Sun Yat-sen had founded the China Revival Society that took exception to the "unequal treaties," as the Chinese called the two treaties forced on China by foreign powers. The society grew and attracted the youth. By 1912, it had changed its name to the Kuo-Min-Tang. Sun Yat-sen, the inspirer of the organisation, wanted a republic, not a constitutional monarchy.

the republic. Exactly three months later, he dissolved the National Assembly and replaced it with a "political council," which drafted a "constitutional compact" granting dictatorial powers to the president. Yuan was made president for life. Yuan became unpopular when he agreed to the Japanese demand to have economic control of Manchuria and Shantung. On the death of Yuan in 1916, a new president was appointed. For the next twelve years the government was central only in name. It was a period of disorder. Around this time Marxist ideas were gaining support in the north of China, parallel to Sun Yat-sen's activities in the coastal cities between Shanghai and Canton.



The Communist Party of China

With the death of Yuan Shih-kai during the First World War, the country came to be divided by rival Chinese generals backed by different powers. Many of the intelligentsia had faith in US liberalism to end this state of affairs. But they felt let down as the expected did not happen. The frustration was unleashed by millions of people through rallies and demonstration in which students took prominent part. After the Russian Revolution of 1917, the writings and speeches of Marx and Lenin became popular amongst the intellectuals. Interest in Marxism grew as China's emerging industrial working class gained in strength and demonstrated it through strikes and boycotts. In 1918 a Society for the Study of Marxism was formed in Peking University. Among the students who attended was a young assistant librarian by the name of Mao Tse-tung.

A series of strikes rocked China in 1922. About 2,000 seamen in Hong Kong, braving the proclamation of martial law, struck work. It soon developed into a general strike of 120,000 workers forcing the employers to opt for peace. Clashes between British police and workers in British-owned factories in Hankou culminated in a warlord shooting down 35 striking rail workers and executing a union unit secretary. Such repressive measures halted the onward march of the working class movement, but did

Mao Tse-tung (1893–1976)

Mao was born in Hunan in south-east China. His father was a wealthy peasant, and a firm supporter of the Manchu dynasty. Mao entered the junior college at Changsha in the year of the revolution (1911). Mao joined the revolutionary army but soon left and enrolled in the Teachers' Training College in Changsha. He remained there until 1918, spending long hours in the library. He then moved to Peking and served as an assistant librarian in Peking University. In the following year Mao began his full-fledged political activities as an organiser of Hunan and emerged as a staunch Communist.

not destroy the spirit of resistance. Instead it led to an increasing level of class consciousness.

By now Sun Yat-sen had established a constitutional government. But its position was weak. So he sought USSR's help to reorganise his Kuomintang. USSR sent Michael Borodin to China. As an experienced Communist Borodin reorganised the Kuomintang as a centralised mass party and helped to build up a revolutionary army. The Whampoa Military Academy was founded near Canton, with the assistance of Soviet officers. Its first director was Chiang Kai-shek. On the staff in charge of political activities was Chou En Lai, as an alliance had been formed between the Chinese Communist Party and the Kuomintang.

Kuomintang and Chiang Kai-Shek

After the death of Sun Yat-sen in 1925, the Kuomintang was organised on Communist lines, but it did not adopt Communist policies. While the Kuomintang was led by Chiang Kai-Shek, the Communist



Chiang Kai-shek

Party was under Mao Tse tung and Chou En Lai. The Communists increased their influence among the workers and peasants, and won recruits for their army. The Kuomintang represented the interests of the landlords and capitalists.

Chiang Kai-Shek began his march known as 'the Northern Expedition' from Canton, and by the end of 1925, he had captured Hanko. By March 1927, when the Expedition was approaching Shanghai, a general strike involving 600,000 workers erupted and the unions had taken over the control of the city. Chiang Kai-shek had already cracked down on the workers' movement in Canton by arresting a number of communist activists and harassing the unions. In Shanghai, after allowing the victorious rebel forces to hand him the city, he treacherously arranged for the criminal gangs in collusion with wealthy Chinese merchants



and the representatives of the foreign powers to launch a pre-dawn attack on the offices of the main left wing unions. The workers' sentries were disarmed and their leaders arrested. Demonstrations were fired on with machine-guns, and thousands of activists died while fighting. At the instance of wealthy merchants and financiers, Chiang Kai-Shek purged all Communists from the Kuomintang Party. In 1928 he was successful in capturing Peking. Once again there was a central government in China. But over the next 18 years his government became notorious for its corruption and gangsterism.

Mao knew that the Kuomintang grip on the towns was too strong. So concentrated his energies on organizing the peasantry. He retreated into the wild mountains on the border between the provinces of Kiangsi and Hunan. Here Mao and his comrades stayed for the next seven years. As the army of Mao was gradually growing, despite five extermination campaigns, the Kuomintang was never able to penetrate the mountains successfully. In the new base of the communists, they had protection from the attacks of Chiang Kai-Shek, and an advantage in dealing with constant threat from Japan and also the attacks from war lords.

The Long March 1934



The Long March

As Chiang Kai-Shek had built a circle of fortified posts around the Communist positions, Mao wanted to move out of Hunan for safer territory. Therefore, the Communist army set out on what came to be known as the Long March in 1934. The marchers were continually harassed

by Kuomintang forces, by local war lords and by unfriendly tribesmen. The machine gun fire of Kuomintang contingents and the deafening roar of the river caused horror to the marchers. Of the 100,000 who set out, only 20,000 finally arrived in northern Shensi late in 1935, after crossing nearly 6000 miles. They were soon joined by other communist armies, and by 1937 Mao Tse-tung was the ruler of over 10 million people. Mao organised Workers and Peasants' Councils in the villages of Shensi and Kansu and the base for the eventual Communist conquest of China was established.

Japanese Aggression and its Fallout

The Japanese continued to occupy north Chinese provinces while developing Manchuria as a military base. Mao believed that Chiang Kai-shek was necessary for some time to hold together Kuomintang to fight the Japanese. As a consequence of this pragmatic policy, the attacks on the Communists gradually petered out. However, a stronger line was adopted towards Japanese expansion. Yet the Japanese had occupied the whole of the eastern half of China during the Second World War, as the Kuomintang armies fell easily. Chiang Kai-shek's capital had to be shifted to Chungking.

Victory to Communists

With the announcement of the Japanese surrender in 1945 after the bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, both the groups in China took immediate steps to occupy the Japanese areas. In the course of this race, the USA advised both sides to negotiate. During 1946 General George Marshall twice negotiated ceasefires, but both were unsuccessful. The Kuomintang government controlled the administration, ports and communication system in view of the massive support provided by the USA. But the Kuomintang soldiers, mainly drawn from the peasants, were



Mao

disillusioned and discontented. Mao, on the other hand, had an army with higher morale and better discipline. When civil war broke out, Chiang Kai-Shek's army began to disintegrate, with generals changing sides. Cities fell one by one. By the end of 1949 Chiang Kai-Shek had fled the mainland for Taiwan. The People's Republic of China was established in 1949.

14.3 Liberation Struggles in Indonesia and Philippines

Mao's victory, following the independence of India, sent a message that imperialism could be defeated in the colonies. But in Southeast Asia, especially in the Philippines and Indonesia, nationalism was in its nascent stage and no substantial progress could be made towards achieving self-government until the dawn of the 20th century. Three and a half years of Japanese occupation resulted in the loss of prestige to the European colonial powers, with the national movements emerging strong and powerful. But after the defeat of Japan in 1945, Western powers sought to return to their territories. At first they tried to return as colonial rulers, but a brief period of rule proved that this to be unrealistic. This resulted in the Dutch and American attempts to hand over power to friendly, moderate nationalist regimes that could block the rise of communism which was ascendant after the end of the World War.

The East Indies (Indonesia)

The Dutch had occupied Java and Sumatra since about 1640. In the second half of the nineteenth century they conquered the outer islands of the East Indies. During the nineteenth century the Dutch were mainly interested in economic, not political control. Most of the population relied on fishing and agriculture. Many worked on European sugar, tobacco, tea and coffee plantations. Heavy investment in these plantations and other concerns with the discovery of oil (1900) and the resultant growth of exports and import all made this area a valuable colony for the Dutch.



Dutch Colonial Rule

The nationalist movement in East Indies took shape much later than in the Philippines. This is because the Dutch were slow in introducing Western education. In the Philippines the Eurasians identified themselves with the native cause and became the leaders of the nationalist movement. The Dutch, in contrast, largely free of racial prejudice, intermarried with the natives and accepted the Eurasians in their society. The Eurasians considered their interests as those of the Dutch.

Rise of Nationalism

The first clear manifestation of nationalism in the East Indies was in 1908, when the first native political society *Boedi Oetomo* (High Endeavour) was organised. The society was founded by students of the first Dutch medical school at the instance of their senior Wahidin Sudirohusodo. The idea was that the native intellectuals should take the lead in working for the educational advancement of the country. It turned out to be a cultural body, consisting mainly of civil servants and students from Java. *Boedi Oetomo* soon became defunct and a more popular political society *Sarekat Islam* (Muslim Union) emerged.

Sarekat Islam was formed mainly to fight against the economic power of the Chinese. But it gradually became a socialist and nationalist body. In 1916 it passed a resolution demanding self-government. In two years its membership increased from 350,000 to two and a half million. Encouraged by the Russian Revolution of 1917 the communists within *Sarekat Islam*

attempted to gain control of the movement. As they failed, they left and formed the Indonesian Communist Party in 1919.

Party Politics

Efforts at delegating powers to the local governments had already been initiated with the passage of a Decentralisation Law in 1903. Provincial councils were established in the following year. But the Indonesians played no part in the government. In view of the growing nationalist agitation the Dutch government created a People's Parliament, *Volksraad* (1918) in Weltevreden, Batavia (Jakarta), Java, and this continued to function until 1942.

During the 1920s, the Communists and Sarekat Islam vied with each other in dominating the nationalist movement. In this rivalry for leadership the communists were successful. They organised strikes which culminated in a big uprising in 1926–27 in western Java and Sumatra. This was immediately crushed. Thousands were imprisoned and this caused a temporary setback to the Communist Party.

Around this time a young engineer named Sukarno organised the Indonesian Nationalist Party. This third party in the country was supported by the westernised secular middle class. But in 1931 the police raided the headquarters of this party. Sukarno was imprisoned and the party he founded was dissolved.



Sukarno

Dutch Repression and Japanese Aggression

During the 1930s, in the wake of the economic depression that resulted in unemployment, wage cuts and increased protests, the government resorted to repression and press censorship to check nationalism. Sukarno and other nationalist leaders were languishing in jail until 1942. The Dutch

surrendered to the Japanese in the East Indies in March 1942. Some opposed the Japanese and organised secret resistance. Some led by Sukarno and Hatta believed that the best method of achieving independence would be to support the Japanese. In the last phase of the war the Japanese decided to negotiate the terms of independence with the Indonesian leaders.

Coming of Independence

But after Japanese evacuation, in accordance with the decisions of the Potsdam Conference, British forces landed in the East Indies in September 1945. They released about 200,000 prisoners of war, mainly Dutch. The Dutch had reoccupied nearly all the East Indian islands except Java and Sumatra, ruled by Sukarno. The Dutch refused to recognise the rule of Sukarno. Yet he refused to relinquish his office as President. So the British-occupying force arranged negotiations which led to Dutch-Indonesian Agreement. This resulted in Dutch recognition of Java and Sumatra as an independent republic, leading to the merger of the rest of the islands to form a federation known as the United States of Indonesia. Subsequently, the Dutch attempted to disrupt the peace in Indonesia twice, but the pressure of world opinion, led by Jawaharlal Nehru as well as the UN Security Council, led to a settlement favourable to Indonesia at the end of 1949. A round table conference held at The Hague adopted a constitution for the independent state of Indonesia. In December 1949 Indonesia became an independent state.



Signing of the Peace Treaty

The Philippines

About 7000 islands named after the Spanish prince Philip, son of King Charles V, came to form the Philippines. Like the East Indies, the Philippines had experienced European rule since the sixteenth century. Spanish colonisation began with the expedition of Miguel Lopez de Legazpi in February 1565. Following this, Spain ruled the Philippines for over 300 years, imposing its language, culture and religion on the local population. Nationalism developed among the Filipinos earlier than elsewhere. The brutal way by which the Cavite uprising (20 January 1872), involving 200 Filipino troops and workers at the Cavite arsenal, was crushed served to promote the nationalist cause. A number of Filipino intellectuals were arrested and after a brief trial, three priests (Jose Burgos, Jacinto Zamora, and Mariano Gomez) were publicly executed and became martyrs.



Spanish–American war

The dispute between America and Spain arising out of America's interest in Cuba snowballed into the Spanish–American war. In view of the mounting pressure building up internally, Spain had already decided to grant Cuba limited powers of self-government. But the U.S. Congress demanded the withdrawal of Spain's armed forces forthwith from the island. The Congress authorised the use of force to secure that withdrawal. As Spain dodged, the U.S. declared war on 25 April 1898. Spain had readied neither its army nor its navy for a distant war with the formidable power of the United States. So it was an easy victory for the US. By the Treaty of Paris (signed on 10 December

1898), Spain renounced all claim to Cuba, ceded Guam and Puerto Rico to the United States, and transferred sovereignty over the Philippines to the United States.

Aguinaldo and other Cavite rebels, while fighting the Spanish army, won major victories in many battles, driving the Spanish out. On May 28, 1898, Aguinaldo gathered a force of about 18,000



Emilio Aguinaldo

troops and fought against a small Spanish garrison in Alapan, Imus, Cavite. After the victory at Alapan, Aguinaldo unfurled the Philippine flag for the first time, and hoisted it at the Teatro Caviteño in Cavite Nuevo (present-day Cavite City) in front of Filipino revolutionaries and more than 300 captured Spanish troops. Emilio Aguinaldo was elected the first president of the new republic with the proclamation of Malolos Constitution. The Philippine Republic endured until the capture of Emilio Aguinaldo by the American forces on March 23, 1901 that resulted in the dissolution of the First Republic.

The nationalists of Philippines thought the issue for America was Cuba. But soon found out that they had only exchanged one master for another. Frustrated by the outcome of Spanish-American War they resorted to guerrilla warfare. The nationalist opposition to the American government was encouraged by a lobby in the US and so the government felt obliged to create representative institutions at an early date. In the wake of American rule (1902), most of the primary colonial institutions were firmly established: an English language education system; an examination-based civil service; a judicial system with provincial courts; a system of municipal and provincial governments based on election, and finally an elected national legislature. In the election held for the 80-member Assembly, the Nationalist Party won a majority.

The Nationalist Party, however, continued to demand self-government. The leader of the party, Quezon, said, 'We should prefer to rule ourselves in Hell to being ruled by others in Heaven.' In the 1930s, during the Depression years, there were serious left-wing risings. The Partido Komunista ng Pilipinas (PKP) founded in 1930 was declared illegal by the U.S. colonial authorities. Yet the communist pressure persuaded the United States government to agree to internal self-government.

The Partido Komunista ng Pilipinas (The Communist Party of the Philippines) and the Huk Rebellion: Though outlawed by the American government, the *Partido Komunista ng Pilipinas* regained its legality later and was at the helm of the Hukbalahap, the People's Army against the Japanese Aggression. Hukbalahap was a strong guerrilla organisation and with the re-conquest of the Philippines by the returning American forces, the PKP and the communist peasants (known as Huks) found themselves under attack by their presumed wartime allies. Huk areas were bombarded by government forces and, as a result, the PKP resorted to guerrilla warfare. At first they adopted it as a defensive posture. But in 1950 the party adopted a strategy for the seizure of power. By the mid-1950s, however, the "Huk rebellion" had been crushed by the Philippine government, assisted by the U.S.

In 1934, the Tydings–McDuffie Act (The Philippines Independence Act) provided a ten year period for transferring power to Filipinos. During this period the United States could maintain military bases in the Philippines, and control foreign policy. This Act was ratified by a plebiscite in 1935. From 1935 to 1941 Quezon was President of the Philippines. Immediately



Quezon

after the Pearl Harbour attack, Japan attacked the Philippines. The conquest of the Philippines by Japan is often considered the worst military defeat in United States history. About 23,000 American military personnel were killed or captured, while Filipino soldiers killed or captured totalled around 100,000.



Philippines Independence

After ending the aggression of Japan, the US honoured its promise given in the Act. In April 1946 elections were held, and on 4 July the Philippines became independent. USA left the Philippines but provided military training and financial support against Huks between 1946 and 1954. Throughout the period the country was one of the USA's most loyal allies. The country was one of only three Asian states to join the US-dominated South East Asian Treaty Organisation (SEATO) in 1954.

Summary

- The unjust nature of Versailles Peace Treaty, failure of League of Nations, economic depression of the 1930s, expansionist policies of Fascist powers like Italy, Germany and Japan, all contributing to the outbreak of World War II are discussed.
- The importance of Japan's attack on Pearl Harbour, the Battle of Stalingrad and bombing of Dresden, the dropping of atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki are highlighted.



- Peace settlement with Axis powers and their allies, the establishment of UNO and the total outcome of the War are analysed.
- The woes of Chinese peasants and the open door policy pursued by the Manchu rulers, resulting in China being carved out as spheres of influence by the foreign powers like Britain and France are detailed.
- Spread of Christianity and interference of foreigners in Chinese administration and Japanese aggression of Chinese territories whipped up nationalist sentiments of the Chinese and prodding them to revolt are explained.
- Role played by Sun-Yat-sen and Mao-Tse Tung in mobilising the Chinese against



EXERCISE



I. Choose the correct answer

1. Which one of the following was not the cause for the outbreak of Second World War?
(a) The unjust nature of the terms of Peace with Germany
(b) Failure of the League of Nations
(c) Economic Depression of 1930s
(d) National Liberation Movements in Colonies
 2. The Kellogg-Briand Pact was signed in the year _____.
(a) 1927 (b) 1928 (c) 1929 (d) 1930
 3. **Assertion (A):** A Disarmament Conference was organised by the League of Nations at Geneva.
Reason (R): The matter came up for deliberation was Germany's rearmament plan on a par with France.
(a) Both A and R are correct. R explains A
(b) Both A and R are correct. R does not explain A
(c) A is correct but R is wrong
(d) A is wrong but R is correct
 4. In which year did Japan invade and seize Manchuria from China?
(a) 1931 (b) 1932 (c) 1933 (d) 1934
 5. _____ emerged as the most powerful Industrial country in continental Europe towards the close of nineteenth century.
(a) France (b) Spain
(c) Germany (d) Austria
 6. Under the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, a plebiscite was to be held in _____ in January 1935.
(a) Sudetenland (b) Rhineland
(c) Saar (d) Alsace
 7. **Assertion (A):** The methods of warfare changed during the Second World War.
Reason (R): Trench warfare had given way to aerial bombing.
(a) Both A and R are correct. R explains A
(b) Both A and R are correct. R does not explain A
(c) A is correct but R is wrong
(d) A is wrong but R is correct
 8. In 1939 Germany signed Non-aggression pact with _____.
(a) Austria (b) Italy
(c) Russia (d) Britain
- Manchu dynasty and in establishing People's government are described.
- The Long March of Mao and the subsequent developments leading finally to the establishment of communist rule in China are elaborated.
 - The history of liberation struggles, with particular reference to Indonesia and the Philippines, is traced.
 - Japanese occupation of these two regions for more than three years and eventual emergence of nationalist movements leading to the overthrow of the colonial regimes in Indonesia and the Philippines are explored.



9. Japanese attack on Pearl Harbour was planned by _____
(a) Yamamoto (b) Schuschnigg
(c) Kaiser William II (d) Hirohito
10. Lend-Lease system introduced by President Roosevelt was helpful in _____
(a) providing additional soldiers to countries fighting the fascist forces
(b) safeguarding the Jews from the murderous attacks of Hitler's army
(c) expanding the resources of the allies, supplying arms and ammunition
(d) providing medical services to those wounded in the Second World War.
11. In August 1942, US forces in the Pacific was commanded by _____
(a) MacArthur
(b) Eisenhower
(c) General de Gaulle
(d) George Marshall
12. The US navy defeated the Japanese navy in the Battle of _____
(a) Britain (b) Guadalcanal
(c) El Alamein (d) Midway
13. German forces suffered their first reverses at _____
(a) Potsdam (b) El Alamein
(c) Stalingrad (d) Midway
14. Which one of the following was not a declaration of the Potsdam conference?
(a) East Prussia to be divided into two parts: northern part going to the Soviet Union, and the southern part to Poland.
(b) Poland to receive the former free city of Danzig.
(c) Germany to be divided into four occupation zones to be governed by the USSR, Great Britain, the United States and France
(d) Trieste was to be divided into Zone A and Zone B. Zone A went to Italy, while zone B was awarded to Yugoslavia.
15. Which one of the following was not the result of the Second World War?
(a) Second World War was fatal to many European monarchies.
(b) The Labour Party government in Britain established a welfare state.
(c) The struggle against Fascism ended in the triumph of Imperialism
(d) The United States and Soviet Russia emerged as two super powers in the world.
16. Which of the following pairs is correct?
1) General de Gaulle - France
2) Haile Selassie - Ethiopia
3) General Badoglio - Japan
4) Admiral Yamamoto - Italy
(a) 1 and 2 (b) 2 and 3
(c) 3 and 4 (d) All are correct
17. France joined the Second Opium War
(a) to help Britain in the war
(b) to carve out a separate sphere of influence to France
(c) to obtain permission for religious activities
(d) to establish the French rights to engage in opium trade.
18. The end of Manchu dynasty came in the year _____
(a) 1908 (b) 1911 (c) 1912 (d) 1916
19. The dispute that led to the Spanish-American War in 1898 was on _____
(a) Cuba (b) the Philippines
(c) Puerto Rico (d) Batavia
20. **Assertion (A):** On 4 July 1946 the Philippines became independent.
Reason (R): Philippines joined the US-dominated South East Asian Treaty Organisation.
(a) Both A and R are correct. R explains A
(b) Both A and R are correct. R does not explain A
(c) A is correct but R is wrong
(d) A is wrong but R is correct



II. Write brief answers

1. Bring out the importance of Kellogg-Briand Pact.
2. Why did Germany withdraw from the League of Nations in 1933?
3. What was the background for the formation of Rome-Berlin Axis?
4. What was the essence of the Munich agreement?
5. What do you know of Dunkirk Evacuation?
6. Highlight the importance of Japan's attack on Pearl Harbour.
7. Enumerate the essential principles of Atlantic Charter.
8. Examine the importance of the Treaty of Nanking.
9. Explain the immediate outcome of American rule established in the Philippines in 1902.
10. Assess the significance of the Cavite uprising.

III. Write Short answers

1. Why was Hitler keen on capturing Stalingrad? Point out how his plan turned out to be his "Waterloo".
2. Allied bombing of Germany became a symbol of terror bombing campaign. Elucidate.
3. Bring out the significance of Huk Rebellion.
4. Highlight the important results of the Second World War.
5. Attempt an account of Boxer Rebellion in China.
6. Discuss the role of Kuomintang Party in China's nationalist politics.
7. Estimate the contribution of Sukarno to the independence of Indonesia.

IV. Answer the following in detail

1. The seeds for the Second World War were sowed in the treaty of Versailles. Discuss with reasons.
2. Examine to what extent Germany and Hitler were responsible for the outbreak of Second World War.

3. Describe Mao Tse Tung's contribution to the establishment of Communist government in China.
4. Make a comparative analysis of common and varying features in the liberation struggles of Indonesia and Philippines.

V. Activity

1. Teachers to arrange to screen the Pearl Harbour movie titled *From Here to Eternity*.
2. "Was the US justified in dropping of Atomic bombs on Japan during the Second World War? Students to debate.
3. Teachers guide the students to mark the important nations and places of battles of the Second World War in an outline world map.
4. Students to attempt a biographical account of important Generals like Yuan Shi kai, MacArthur, George Marshall, General Badoglio as well as rebel/ nationalist leaders like Hung Hsiu-chuan, and Aguinaldo.



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A-Z GLOSSARY

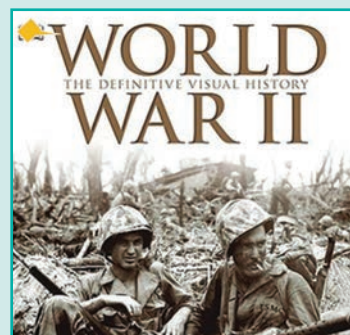
reparation	payments made by a defeated nation after a war to pay for damages it caused to another nation	போரில் தோற்ற நாடு மற்றொரு நாட்டிற்கு அது ஏற்படுத்திய சேதத்திற்காக வழங்கும் இழப்பீட்டுத் தொகை
disarmament	reduction of military forces and weapons	இராணுவ ஆட்கள் மற்றும் ஆயுதக் குறைப்பு
breach	go against the treaty, violate	உடன்படிக்கையை மீறு
appeasement	conciliation	சமாதானப்படுத்துதல்
evacuation	removing a person or persons from a place.	ஒரிடத்திலிருந்து வெளியேற்றுதல்
embolden	give the courage to do something	ஊக்கம் கொள்ளச் செய்தல், துணிவூட்டல்
concentration camp	a place where large numbers of people are kept as prisoners in extremely bad condition	சித்திரவதை முகாம்
vindictive	revengeful	பழிவாங்கும் இயல்புடைய
belligerent	one eager to fight; aggressive	போரிடுகிற, மூர்க்கத்தனமான
unprecedented	never done, never known before	முன்னெப்போதுமில்லாத, முன் சம்பவிக்காத
quell	crush, suppress	அடக்கு, ஒடுக்கு
indemnity	obligation of an individual or a nation to bear the losses of another incurred in a war.	போரில் தோற்றவர் மீது கோரப்படும் இழப்பீட்டுத் தொகை
crew	staff who work on board a ship or aircraft	கப்பல்/ விமானப் பணியாளர் குழு
treacherously	in a disloyal and faithless manner	நம்பிக்கைத் துரோகமாய்
manifestation	appearance or demonstration	வெளிப்பாடு
languish	to exist in an unpleasant condition	தளர்வடை, செயல் இழ
dodge	to trick to evade	தவிர்க்க, தட்டிக்கழிக்கத் தந்திரம் செய்தல்.
persuade	convince someone to do something through reasoning or argument.	விவாதத்தின்மூலம் இணங்கச் செய்
seizure	capture, takeover, annexation	பறிமுதல் செய்தல், கைப்பற்றுதல்



ICT CORNER

Outbreak of World War II and its Impact in Colonies

Through this activity you will learn about pictorial Timeline events of World War II.



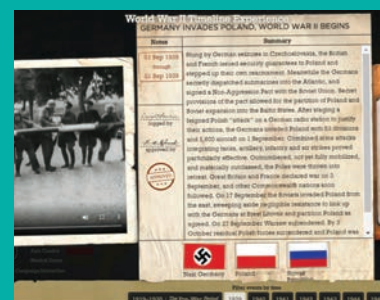
- Step - 1** Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Step - 2** Click on 'map' to see the events happened in the location and select any year from the bottom timeline (Ex.1939)
- Step - 3** Select the 'box' on the map to learn more about the World War II events.



Step1



Step2



Step3

Web URL: https://www.abmc.gov/sites/default/files/interactive/interactive_files/WW2/index.html



*Pictures are indicative only

*If browser requires, allow Flash Player or Java Script to load the page