

4. The accompanying poster, titled "Fatherland, Family, and Future," demonstrates which of the following about World War I?
- Governments reluctantly made use of propaganda to appeal to the public.
 - Of the combatants, Germany proved most reliant on public opinion.
 - Governments often portrayed the war as a struggle for civilization.
 - State power extended to propaganda but not to economic regulation.
 - Governments permitted a wide range of opinions regarding the war effort.



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5. Which of the following is the most accurate characterization of how World War I and the Russian Revolution affected the status of women?
- Women gained the right to vote in many nations following 1918.
 - The equality of women in the workplace was confirmed.
 - Women earned top positions of leadership in many states.
 - The status of women stayed virtually the same after both events.
 - Segregation of gender based on "separate spheres" was ended.
6. All of the following provisions were imposed on Germany as a result of the Treaty of Versailles (1919) EXCEPT:
- loss of Alsace-Lorraine to France.
 - dismemberment into three German states.
 - reduction of Germany's military capacity.
 - acceptance of full guilt for the war.
 - payment of reparations as damages.
7. Following the abolition of serfdom, from 1861–1905, which of the following best characterizes the situation of the Russian peasantry?
- A new class of small commercial farmers dominated Russian agriculture.
 - Most peasants moved from the village communes into urban areas.
 - Rural overpopulation and land shortage caused continuous unrest.

Mass politics made governments respond more to pressures. With nationalism, leaders had to appeal to all the people and act like they represented them. This meant that many new groups wanted to get more rights, such as workers, women, and ethnic groups. Workers formed socialist parties, went on strike, and even used assassinations if they were anarchists. Suffragettes demanded the vote. With all of this chaos, governments tried to manipulate nationalism to “rally round the flag.” Before 1914, this meant that states pursued colonies, like Italy and Germany, mostly to appeal to their public’s demand for national glory. Urban areas grew larger and industrialization created many new problems. All of these issues placed great strain on governments. Why is this relevant? When the decision for war came, many leaders considered that a war might rally the public around the government. In fact, many citizens celebrated the declaration of war and groups, like the SPD in Germany, decided to support the war effort, even though they were supposed to be socialist.

All of these factors would not have mattered without the alliance system. Without the two opposed alliances, the crises in the Balkans probably would have stayed between Austria and Russia. When Bismarck ran Germany, he focused on keeping the balance of power and isolating France. His alliance system was really complex and few understood it. However, when Kaiser Wilhelm got rid of Bismarck in 1890, he decided to get Germany’s “place in the sun” by building up the navy and getting colonies. His actions alienated Russia and Britain, who joined with France in an alliance. Though Germany was allied with Italy, their only really ally was Austria. This meant that Germany depended on a weak nation with lots of nationalism problems. Germany was encircled and feared losing its only ally, so when Austria took a hard line against Serbia in 1914, the Kaiser issued the “blank check.” When Russia defended Serbia, this drew in Germany, France, and eventually Britain.

WWI is one of the most complicated events because of many background causes. Franz Ferdinand’s assassination was only the tip of the iceberg. Beneath the surface, Balkan nationalism, mass politics, and the alliance system ensured that this “trigger” would explode in a European war.

This is an excellent student response, a paragon of the student being “in control” of the question. From the outset, the student demonstrates a grasp of the historical context and clearly identifies three relevant factors. Body paragraphs begin with a strong topic sentence and then proceed to explain how and why the particular causal factor is relevant. The student chooses the examples judiciously and applies them explicitly to demonstrate *how* and *why* each factor acted as a cause. In addition, the response is fully developed with balanced treatment of each topic. Finally, though the conclusion is brief, the student employs a couple of vivid metaphors to reinforce her point. Score: 9.

In addition, conservative interests opposed the new democracies on one hand, while extreme socialists worked to overthrow them on the other. The specter of Bolshevism hung over Eastern Europe, as in 1919 when radical leader Béla Kun attempted to establish a Soviet regime in Hungary, before his ouster in 1920. Even the great social change in the region—**land reform**—failed to solve the problem of underdevelopment. The new democracies lacked the integrated economies they had experienced as part of former empires. Though peasants were confirmed in ownership of their small farms, the development of a middle class—the traditional basis for parliamentary democracy—lagged far behind Western Europe. Other than Czechoslovakia, the new Eastern European democracies proved thin reeds and fell over easily with the crisis of depression and the threat of dictatorship.

Germany's Failed Experiment with Democracy: The Weimar Republic

Germany's Weimar Republic began with two strikes against it. Born amidst the turmoil accompanying the end of World War I, the republic faced a myriad of economic and political problems. Many influential Germans, particularly military officials, judges, and civil servants, opposed the new government as a weak substitute for imperial Germany. Extremist groups on both the left and the right attempted to overthrow the government in the first years of its existence.

Two parties helped found the republic and draw up its constitution—the Social Democratic Party (left-center) and the **Catholic Center Party** (right-center). The former had all but abandoned its Marxist rhetoric and seemed more concerned with advancing Germany's welfare system; both wished to avoid communist and rightist takeovers. In 1919, a Soviet-inspired communist movement, known as the **Spartacists** and led by Rosa Luxembourg and Karl Liebknecht, attempted an overthrow of the Berlin city government but were captured and executed by the **Freikorps**, a right-wing paramilitary group. Then in 1920, the Freikorps itself attempted a coup d'état against Weimar known as the **Kapp putsch**. Only the intervention of the working class saved the republic an early death. Political violence seemed to mark the short history of the republic, as when Foreign Minister Walter Rathenau was assassinated in 1922 by two conservative army officers.

According to the Weimar constitution, delegates to the Reichstag (the popular branch of the parliament) were chosen by **proportional representation**, meaning that if a party received 10 percent of the vote, it would earn approximately 10 percent of the seats in the Reichstag. Though this allowed for a diversity of views, the system also made it difficult to establish stable majority government and easier for extreme views to gain a political voice. Also, in times of "imminent danger," the president of the republic could suspend parliamentary rule and rule by decree. This so-called **suicide clause** (Article 48) provided a pretext for those who wished to undermine democratic rule.

Perhaps most damaging to Weimar was its association with the Versailles settlement. Even left-of-center Germans viewed the treaty as a **Diktat**, or "dictated peace." Demagogues such as Hitler perpetuated the myth that the German army in 1918 stood on the verge of victory when it was "stabbed in the back" by the "Jews, socialists, communists, and democrats" bent on establishing republican government at any price. No matter how untrue and unfair this charge, it allowed right-wing groups to scapegoat the Weimar Republic for Germany's problems. When this catalogue is added to the economic problems of reparations, hyperinflation, and the Great Depression, Weimar's failure is not difficult to understand.

THE GREAT DEPRESSION

Causes

World War I and the Treaty of Versailles sowed the seeds for the Great Depression. Before 1914, economic activity had become increasingly global, meaning that disturbance in one area transmitted quickly to other areas. During the period of international stability, 1924–1929, the world economy was marked by prosperity, especially in new sectors such as automobiles, household appliances, and communications. This prosperity proved shallow, however, and was hindered by the following factors:

- **Strong inflationary pressures**—During World War I, governments engaged in rationing and borrowed money at record rates. In addition, most states depreciated their currencies in an effort to reduce their debt. Inflation complicated the return to a peacetime economy and wreaked havoc on the world system of stable currencies existing before 1914.
- **Disrupted markets**—While Europe fought World War I, competitors moved into its worldwide markets. For example, India developed its own textile industry and was less interested in British imports following the war. North America and Australia established themselves as major exporters of grain. When the war ended, European nations found it difficult to reestablish former trade patterns.
- **Agricultural depression**—A glut of grain worldwide drove down prices and left many farmers bankrupt or destitute.
- **Economic nationalism**—To protect fragile domestic markets and head off unrest, most states enacted high tariff barriers. The United States, in particular, refused to replace Great Britain as financial world leader; rather than lower tariffs to allow Germany to accumulate capital from trade and thus pay off reparations, the United States enacted some of its highest barriers ever.
- **Reparations**—The cycle of world capital flowed from the United States to Germany, then from Germany to France and Britain, and finally back to the United States. This unnatural arrangement disrupted investment, while making world economic activity unusually reliant on American financial conditions.
- **Credit financing**—The advent of the installment plan allowed consumers to defer payment on purchases. In addition, expanding American stock market activity occurred “**on margin**,” by borrowing up to 90 percent of the stock’s value. Any small economic downturn threatened to burst this speculative bubble.

When the United States **stock market crashed** in October 1929, it triggered the various components of the above “trap” into place, causing a downward economic spiral.

Effects

Europe had experienced economic cycles throughout its history, but nothing compared with the Great Depression in the 1930s for length and depth of contraction. Stock values plunged from 1929 to 1932 as businesses cut back production and laid off workers. Investment and **world trade plummeted**. **Unemployment** reached shocking proportions, strengthening those parties who promised extreme solutions to problems. Germany and the United States were hardest hit; as many as 35 percent of workers stood idle in both nations. Due to the unstable credit situation, the stock market crash rippled throughout the financial world, causing global bank failures. In 1931 the failure of the leading Vienna bank, the *Creditanstalt*, sparked additional financial collapses.

fell victim to heightening ideological tensions, particularly after the outbreak of the Spanish Civil War. However, France preserved its republican government for the time being and enacted legislation that still benefits French workers today.

United States: Under President Franklin Roosevelt (1882–1945), the United States initiated a wide-ranging but somewhat haphazard program of relief, recovery, and reform. The **New Deal** began with a flurry of legislation in 1933 providing subsidies for farmers, public works jobs in the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), and market regulation through the National Recovery Administration (NRA). Congress created numerous “alphabet” agencies to regulate the stock market and the banking industry, provide jobs, and address environmental issues. Later, Roosevelt turned to reform. **The Social Security Act** (1935), for example, provided unemployment, disability, and old-age insurance. Though these acts provided relief, unemployment spiked again from 1937 to 1938. It would take World War II for the United States to recover fully from the Great Depression.

Scandinavia: The Scandinavian nations of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark demonstrated that governments could effectively combine elements of socialism and democracy. These states enacted the most wide-ranging social welfare programs to curb the worst effects of the Great Depression. Additionally, Scandinavian nations most eagerly embraced creative and Keynesian approaches, such as **producers’ cooperatives** to regulate the price of agricultural products and state ownership of key industries.

TOTALITARIANISM

Totalitarianism represents a phenomenon of the interwar period, yet it also claims roots in the pre-1914 period as well. Mass politics and intellectual trends after 1870 fueled the development of irrational ideologies. You may recall the growth of political anti-Semitism, anarchism’s glorification of violence, and the rabid nationalism associated with imperialism. In addition, Darwinian evolution emphasized the importance of struggle, a notion taken up by racists and extremists to justify domination of the “weaker.” During World War I, states grew significantly in their powers of regimentation and mobilization, employing propaganda to control public opinion. Communication advances in the interwar period, such as radio and motion pictures, provided additional means for controlling the populace.

Dictatorship was not new to Europe, so how can we distinguish totalitarianism from the absolutism of the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries? Absolute monarchs such as Louis XIV derived their power from traditional dynastic and aristocratic institutions, and it extended to those areas deemed essential to the state’s interest, such as trade, taxes, and religion. Even then, geographic and customary obstacles hindered centralization. Totalitarian dictators exploited mass media to mobilize the public to fanatical support of the “movement,” not simply passive obedience, as with absolute monarchs. Twentieth-century dictators aimed at total control of society; any independent civic or social life must be subordinated to the party, movement, and leader. Modern communications allowed for such control but also increased the potential for catastrophic violence, as would be clear during World War II.

Fascism and Mussolini’s Italy

Fascism represented a European and even world phenomenon in the interwar period. For many, fascism acted as a “third way” between faltering Liberal democracies and revolutionary, class-based Marxism. With its roots in nineteenth-century irrational ideologies but feeding on the unstable conditions of the 1920s and 1930s, fascism seemed a genuine threat to supplant

Soon after the election, a respected socialist deputy, **Giacomo Matteotti**, was **assassinated** by fascist thugs for exposing corruption and violence within the government. Public outrage demanded the resignation of Mussolini, who, nonetheless, used the incident to secure his hold on government.

By 1926, fascism had **censored the press**, eliminated all opposition parties, and employed a **secret police**, the OVRA, to ferret out dissent. In keeping with fascist ideology, Mussolini condemned laissez-faire capitalism, democracy, and Marxist appeals to class. National solidarity and glory, symbolized by Mussolini himself, *Il Duce*, replaced a pluralistic society made up of varying groups. In economic affairs, Mussolini introduced the **corporative state**, in which the economy was run as 22 separate corporations, with representatives from business, Fascist-organized labor unions, and the state. State interest dictated actual policy and production priorities, though private property and profit were allowed.

In social and cultural life, the fascists worked to orient the lives of Italians around the state. To end the conflict with the Catholic Church, dating from 1870, Mussolini signed the **Lateran Accord** in 1929, which recognized the sovereignty of the church over the Vatican in exchange for the papacy's promise not to interfere with the functions of the state. To address Italy's declining birth rate, Mussolini provided incentives for larger families, gave awards for fertile mothers, and created holidays to honor motherhood. In a fascist state, women were clearly to play the domestic role of rearing strong children for the state. A healthy race demanded a regimen of physical fitness. Schools required calisthenics, and the government sponsored recreational and outdoor activities through the state-sponsored *Dopolavoro*.

The fascist corporative state failed to address effectively the problems of the Great Depression. Mussolini turned to a program of public works to provide jobs for Italians—swamps were cleared, roads built, and a move toward self-sufficiency in wheat and power was made. Though it was said that Mussolini “made the trains run on time,” he was forced increasingly after 1935 to engage in imperialist adventures to revive support for his flagging movement. Despite fascist efforts, Italy was never able to realize the totalitarian state to the degree of Nazi Germany or Stalinist Soviet Union.

Nazi Germany

Hitler and the Rise to Power

Perhaps no political movement in history is associated more with a single person than Nazism and Adolph Hitler. Hitler came from a lower-middle-class Austrian family of unremarkable circumstances. The young Hitler moved to Vienna to pursue his artistic aspirations. After failing entrance to the Viennese art academy, Hitler attempted to live by selling his watercolors and postcards. While in Vienna, Hitler absorbed the anti-Semitism of its mayor, Karl Lueger, and grew to hate the “mongrel” Habsburg Empire with its ethnic diversity and aristocratic airs. To avoid being drafted into the Austrian army at the outset of World War I, Hitler crossed the border into Bavaria and enlisted in the German army. The young corporal served with distinction at the front as a message runner, and ended the war in a hospital, the victim of a poison gas attack, when he heard the news of the armistice. Hitler found his war experience the most significant of his life

leadership of the S.A., grown to 500,000 men and perceived as a threat to the army's monopoly of military force. With Hitler in power, the S.A. no longer seemed necessary, and its leader, **Ernst Röhm** (1887–1934), represented one of the last potential challenges to Hitler's unquestioned leadership of the party. On the night of June 30, 1934, top leaders of the Brownshirts, in addition to numerous other political opponents, were summarily executed in what became known as the **Blood Purge**. When President Hindenburg died two months later, Hitler assumed the position of president.

Terror formed an elemental weapon of Nazi rule. Internally, a secret police, the **Gestapo**, arrested real and imagined opponents, committing thousands to a constellation of **concentration camps**. Following the S.A. purge, the **S.S.** (Schutzstaffel) emerged as the primary perpetrators of terror, eventually absorbing control of the Gestapo, running the death camps, and forming the leading edge of a new "Aryan" racial elite. Another ingredient of the total state involved "**coordinating**" any independent social and civic organizations—charities, youth groups, unions—into Nazi organizations. Though not all Germans belonged to the Nazi Party, all social activity was to be geared around the state and its goals. The Nazi Party also positively promoted loyalty through propaganda, such as the annual **Nuremberg rallies**, a spectacle of pageantry and regimentation captured effectively in the film "**Triumph of the Will**."

To solve Germany's economic problems, the Nazis engaged in "pump-priming" techniques of government spending on public works and rearmament. By 1936, the Nazis had developed a **Four-Year Plan** to promote the goal of self-sufficiency (**autarky**) in strategic commodities such as fuels and rubber. Hitler won over industrialists with the promise of government contracts for rearmament and eliminating the perceived socialist threat. In addition, the independent labor unions of the Social Democratic Party were replaced by the **National Labor Front**, a state-run union requiring each worker in good standing to carry a booklet before being able to procure a job. With projects such as the Autobahn, many Germans credited Hitler with getting Germany back to work, even if his pump priming did not represent a long-term solution to Germany's problems.

Nazi racial policy touched all areas of life. Boys were enrolled in the **Hitler Youth** and girls in the **League of German Maidens** to reinforce traditional gender roles and build a strong racial stock. Women were expected to fulfill the domestic duties of "church, kitchen, and children," while their public and economic roles were limited by the state. Anti-Semitic policies fulfilled the Nazi racial vision. At first, Jews were excluded from the civil service and army. To clarify the position of Jews in Germany, the Nazis passed the **Nuremberg Laws** of 1935, which defined who was a Jew, stripped Jews of citizenship, and prohibited sexual relations with "Aryans." Many Jews preferred to remain in Germany, hoping to ride out the Nazi tide. However, Nazi policies turned violent with the **Kristallnacht** (Night of Broken Glass) of November 1938, in which synagogues were burned, businesses destroyed, and hundreds of Jews killed or arrested. To further the goal of a pure Aryan race, the Nazis also engaged in campaigns of **sterilization** for the "mentally unfit" and euthanasia for the terminally ill, insane, and physically deformed. This **T-4 program** killed approximately 200,000 between 1939 and 1941 before protests by religious groups slowed and eventually halted it. For the attentive, the genocidal program laid out in *Mein Kampf* was apparent before the onset of World War II.

productive rights gained in the 1920s were reversed as part of a campaign to increase the birth rate, forcing them to balance work and family obligations. Regimentation of Soviet social life acted as the natural by-product of its astounding economic successes.

THE CULTURE OF THE INTERWAR PERIOD

Cultural developments from 1918 to 1939 reflected two distinct trends: (1) the disillusioning effects of World War I in high culture and (2) the further development of a truly mass culture based on new communications technologies. We address both of these areas in turn.

Experimentation and Alienation in High Culture

The writers, artists, and intellectuals who came of age during World War I became known as the **Lost Generation**. Prewar trends of **irrationality**, **subjectivity**, and **alienation** were confirmed by the experience of the war. German historian **Oswald Spengler** (1880–1936) reflected this sense of pessimism in his book *The Decline of the West*, which argued that Europe possessed the innate tendency to engage in self-destructive acts and was doomed to decadence. Writers of fiction worked in similar themes. **Franz Kafka** (1883–1924) described characters caught up in an incomprehensible world with no capacity to alter their fate. In one of the great antiwar novels, Erich Maria Remarque's (1898–1970) *All Quiet on the Western Front* showed matter of factly how war destroys innocence and meaning. T. S. Eliot's epic poem "The Waste Land" (1922) captured a similar sense of decline and the absurdity of human existence.

Many writers experimented with **stream-of-consciousness** styles and unstructured works to convey the subjective nature of experience. Marcel Proust's *Remembrance of Things Past* explores the narrator's memories of childhood experiences amid a half-waking state. James Joyce's *Ulysses* stands as the masterwork of modernist literature, examining one day in the life of Dublin resident Stephen Dedalus through mental associations and word play. Virginia Woolf experimented with similar techniques but combined them with feminist themes. Expatriates (those who live outside their culture or nation) from the United States—Ernest Hemingway, F. Scott Fitzgerald, and Gertrude Stein—worked in similar styles and themes and demonstrated the growing influence of American culture as well as the profound sense of alienation in the Western world as a whole.

Modern art became incredibly diverse in the twentieth century. Weimar Germany, and Berlin in particular, became a center of experimentation in the arts; in painting, German artists such as George Grosz and Hannah Hoch employed expressionist and Dadaist techniques to critique the perceived weakness and corruption of Weimar. **Dadaism** represented an anti-art movement, using artistic media to show the absurdity of life. Examples include collages of disconnected images or distorted caricatures. Abstraction reduces reality down to its essentials—line, shape, and color. In the massive mural *Guernica* (1937), Pablo Picasso conveys the horror of a fascist atrocity during the Spanish Civil War through the spare use of symbols and Cubist multiple perspective. Furthermore, Freud's ideas regarding the unconscious began to influence painting with the artistic movement of **surrealism**. Spanish surrealist **Salvador Dali** (1904–1989) gained fame for his bizarre juxtaposition of objects and dreamy landscapes, as in his ubiquitous *The Persistence of Memory* (1931). In architecture, modernists from the **Bauhaus** school, such as **Walter Gropius** (1883–1969) and **Mies van der Rohe** (1886–1969) in Germany,

THE ROAD TO WORLD WAR II, 1933–1939: APPEASEMENT

Though historians still debate the causes of World War I, those of World War II lack controversy—the ambitions of Nazi Germany to overturn the Versailles settlement. Seemingly every year after taking power until the commencement of hostilities in 1939, Adolph Hitler provoked an international crisis related to his goals of creating a **New European Order** around race. Hitler sought first to regain those lands lost at Versailles; second, to subdue France and bring Britain to friendly terms; third, to turn east and conquer Slavic Europe as a vast granary and slave labor force; and finally, in the process, to eliminate “culture destroyers” such as Jews and Gypsies. That Hitler almost accomplished these goals demonstrates the fragility of the post-WWI diplomatic order.

To avoid another war, the western democracies engaged in **appeasement**, or an attempt to meet Hitler’s demands through diplomacy. Today, the term suggests cowardice and folly, but at the time it was driven by several concerns: (1) lack of preparation for war due to budget constraints created by the Great Depression, (2) a greater fear of Soviet communism, and (3) the genuine feeling that the horrors of Verdun and the Somme must not be repeated. The following chronology serves to demonstrate the evolution of Hitler’s goals and tactics, as well as the application and eventual abandonment of appeasement. Without the active diplomatic support of the Soviet Union (due to its exclusion) and the United States (due to its isolation), it seemed an almost impossible task to deter Hitler or Mussolini, not to mention the Japanese.

1931: In pursuit of natural resources, Japan invades the Chinese province of **Manchuria**. Rhetorical denunciations by the League of Nations provoke Japan’s withdrawal from that body.

1933: Hitler withdraws Germany from the League of Nations and the Geneva disarmament conference, primarily to demonstrate domestically that no international institution can restrain German initiatives.

1934: An attempted Nazi overthrow of the Austrian government fails, due primarily to the intervention of Mussolini, who fears the growth of German power on his border and covets Austrian lands for himself.

1935: Hitler openly repudiates the Versailles provisions related to demilitarization. Great Britain “rewards” Germany’s open rearmament with an **Anglo-German Naval Agreement**, allowing Hitler to build up his navy.

To avenge Italy’s defeat in 1896, Mussolini **invades Ethiopia** without provocation. In a failure of collective security, Britain and France’s half-hearted economic sanctions and military actions fail to prevent Italy’s conquest of Ethiopia.

1936: Rejecting Versailles and the Locarno Pact, Hitler boldly **remilitarizes the Rhineland**. France and Britain do nothing, convincing Hitler of their weakness.

Since 1931, Spain had been ruled by a republic. The republican government moved against the entrenched power of the Catholic Church and large landowners. Elections in 1936 led to the creation of a Popular Front of leftist parties aimed against monarchists, clerical supporters, and army officers. Military officers, led by **General Francisco Franco** (1892–1975) and aided by the Fascist **Falange** movement, attempt to overthrow the republic, plunging the nation into a vicious civil war between nationalists and Loyalists. The **Spanish Civil War** (1936–1939) becomes a test of rival ideological forces—fascism vs. communism—and a “**warm-up for World War II.**” Other than a few idealists from the democracies, the only nation willing to commit significant

ethnic groups targeted for extermination. Keeping in mind the previous caveats about military history on the AP Exam, the following chart should provide a general understanding of the nature and course of the conflict.

Phases of the Conflict

Phase	Goals and Strategy	Actions and Results	Assessment
Blitzkrieg, 1939–1941	<p>In the early phase of the war, Hitler takes the initiative and attacks Poland. The following spring, the Nazis move against Norway, the Low Countries, and France.</p> <p>In its first defeat, Germany is unable to bring Britain to its knees.</p> <p>Without directly entering the conflict, President Franklin Roosevelt of the United States provides aid to Great Britain with the Lend-Lease Act and signs the Atlantic Charter with Winston Churchill, the new leader of Britain, outlining the Anglo-American war aims.</p> <p>By the end of 1941, Japan's attack on the United States and Hitler's invasion of its former ally, the USSR, cements the Grand Alliance</p>	<p>* With armored divisions and aerial bombers, Hitler's <i>blitzkrieg</i> ("lightning war") defeats Poland in a matter of weeks. Meanwhile, Britain and France declare war but do not attack, labeled by critics as the "phony war."</p> <p>* Soviet troops move into the Baltic states, eastern Poland, and attack Finland. Soviet troops perform poorly but eventually defeat Finnish forces.</p> <p>* In the spring of 1940, Hitler secures his northern flank vis-à-vis Britain and supplies of iron ore by taking Norway. The Nazis next defeat the Low Countries and France, as Mussolini lends a hand. German forces occupy the northern two-thirds of France, allowing the creation of the collaborationist Vichy government in the south. Free French forces under Charles de Gaulle (1890–1970) continue resistance.</p> <p>* Under the strong leadership of Prime</p>	<p>By the end of 1941, Hitler continues to hold the initiative. Nazi Germany continues to dominate Europe and works toward a joint strategy with Japan to link forces in Central Asia.</p> <p>Churchill and Roosevelt agree to concentrate on the war in Europe, with the Pacific theater taking a back seat.</p> <p>Hitler's invasion of the USSR takes Stalin by surprise and also allows for the beginning of the systematic genocide of Slavs, Gypsies, and Jews.</p>

Phase	Goals and Strategy	Actions and Results	Assessment
Turning of the Tide, 1942–1944	<p>the Greater East Asian Co-Prosperty Sphere, reaching its height in the spring of 1942.</p> <p>German and Italian forces attack British forces in North Africa, threatening the Suez Canal.</p> <p>In a series of counterattacks, the Allies defeat the Axis in North Africa, the Soviet Union, and in the Pacific.</p>	<p>Anglo-American invasion pushes German forces under Erwin Rommel out of North Africa.</p> <p>* Anglo-American forces launch an invasion of Sicily and move up the peninsula of Italy. Mussolini is captured by Allied forces in 1943 but rescued by German paratroopers. The Allied drive up the peninsula stalls outside Rome as German forces take up the fight.</p> <p>* The American naval victory at Midway deals a decisive blow to Japan's naval strength. At Guadalcanal, the U.S. amphibious invasion blunts Japan's threat to Australia.</p>	<p>launching an amphibious assault, the United States needed to secure control of the seas from German submarines, largely accomplished by early 1944.</p> <p>In the Pacific, American forces began the strategy of "island hopping" to gain a base of operations directly against the Japanese home islands.</p>
Endgame, 1944–1945	<p>Anglo-American forces establish a second front in France and along with the advance of Soviet forces, move toward the German homeland. Soviet forces divert into the Balkans to ensure Soviet forces paused outside Warsaw in September 1944 to watch the Nazis destroy Soviet control of Eastern Europe following the war.</p> <p>U.S. forces close in on the Japanese home islands. Following fierce fighting, the Pacific war ends with the dropping of two atomic bombs on</p>	<p>* At the D-Day invasion of Normandy (June 1944), the United States and Britain establish a beachhead in France, which eventually leads to the liberation of Paris by August.</p> <p>* Soviet forces pursued outside Warsaw in September 1944 to watch the Nazis destroy the Polish Home Army during their effort to liberate the city. It was later discovered that 20,000 Polish army officers had been slaughtered under Stalin's orders in the Katyn Massacre.</p> <p>* In the Pacific, U.S. forces retake the Philippines, capture</p>	<p>The combined manpower and economic potential of the Allied powers exercises a decisive influence on the course of the war. In addition, strategic errors by the Axis powers as well as the unification of numerous groups opposed to the brutal rule of the Nazis eventually works in the Allies' favor. America's use of the first atomic weapons ends World War II but also marks the beginning of the Nuclear Age and the Cold War.</p>

the “battle of the machines.” The city of **Leningrad** endured a 900-day **siege**, its residents often surviving on mice; spring thaws revealed thousands of corpses in the streets. Women also served in the armed forces, unique among the combatants, as with the famous “Night Witches” fighter pilots protecting Stalingrad.

Great Britain: Great Britain effectively centralized its economy for wartime production. Almost every able-bodied adult assisted the war effort—women went into armament production and older citizens joined the **Home Guard**. The government created ministries to oversee and distribute fuel, food, and war supplies. In addition, citizens were encouraged to develop self-sufficiency in food production, as with “**Dig for Victory**” gardens. Citizens received **ration books** with coupons and received only those goods assigned to them. The shared sacrifice of rationing continued even after the war, ending only in 1951.

United States: President Roosevelt urged the United States to become the “**arsenal of democracy**” for the Allied powers. On one hand, no nation was producing more tanks, planes, and ships by the end of the conflict. However, the United States never entered a complete wartime production footing. Though rationing was practiced, it did not reach the levels of European control, particularly with fuel consumption. After Pearl Harbor, thousands of **Japanese** citizens of the United States on the West Coast were forced into **internment camps** to prevent their conspiring with the Japanese Empire.

Collaboration and Resistance

Europeans of occupied nations faced stark choices—to collaborate or resist. A major reason for Nazi success militarily and with genocide involves the active cooperation or apathetic acceptance of many in occupied lands. Conservatives in many nations welcomed the Nazi takeover as a solution to indigenous political problems. To assist in ruling occupied lands, Nazi Germany created puppet governments. In Norway, Vadkun Quisling lent his name, “**quisling**,” to those who betray their nation by assisting a foreign power’s conquest. Though nominally independent, the Vichy regime in France cooperated with Nazi authorities, assisting in the Nazi Final Solution (see following discussion). Reprisals against thousands of collaborators followed right after the armies of liberation. In the complex Balkans, the **Ustashe**, a nationalist and Catholic government of Croatia, assisted the Nazis in taking reprisals against Orthodox Serbs.

Anti-Nazi movements gained momentum as the war tide turned. Resistance groups engaged in acts of sabotage and assassination, hindered production, rescued ethnic minorities, and spread anti-Nazi or nationalist propaganda. Strongly organized movements arose in France under Charles de Gaulle and in Yugoslavia under **Joseph Broz Tito** (1892–1980). Due to the latter’s efforts, Yugoslavia became the only nation in Eastern Europe that did not require the aid of the Soviet army to liberate itself from Nazi rule. The Polish council, **Zegota**, saved hundreds of Jews in Poland, while Denmark was able to engineer the rescue of almost all 8,000 of its Jewish population. Within Germany, a group of idealistic university students, named the **White Rose**, distributed pamphlets against the Nazis before being caught and executed. Conservative army officers attempted but failed to assassinate Hitler in July 1944, leading to the execution of thousands.

Baumel, Judith Tydor, and Walter Laqueur, *The Holocaust Encyclopedia* (2001)—A comprehensive and well-written resource.

Burleigh, Michael, *The Third Reich: A New History* (2000)—This volume serves as a useful resource on all things related to Nazi Germany.

Gay, Peter, *Weimar Culture: The Outsider as Insider* (rev. 2001)—A noted historian examines cultural experimentation amid a fractured political climate.

Mazower, Mark, *Dark Continent: Europe's Twentieth Century* (1999)—Portrays the era as a violent clash between democracy, Fascism, and communism.

Rosenbaum, Ron, *Explaining Hitler: The Search for the Origins of His Evil* (1999)—A psychologist pursues various theories to explain the nature of human evil.

Weinberg, Gerhard, *A World at Arms: A Global History of World War II* (rev. 2005)—Strictly for military history buffs, the most comprehensive and riveting account of the war.

www.indiana.edu/~league/—A photo archive for the League of Nations; also includes text on league organs and functions.

www.loc.gov/exhibits/archives/—This Library of Congress site features formerly secret documents from the Soviet archives.

www.russianphotographs.com/exhibitions/index.html—An excellent site for photographs from the Soviet perspective, including World War II.

www.ushmm.org/—The official site of the United States Holocaust Museum in Washington, D.C.; features a searchable encyclopedia.

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

1. Which is the best characterization of European diplomacy in the period 1919–1933?
 - a. effective use of the League of Nations to deter conflict
 - b. a coalition of great powers united against communism
 - c. a growing partnership between France and the United States
 - d. Germany's acceptance of the Versailles settlement
 - e. inability to create a balance of power or collective security
2. The new democracies in Eastern Europe faced all of the following problems in the period 1918–1939 EXCEPT:
 - a. Austrian efforts to reestablish the Habsburg Empire.
 - b. disputes over contested ethnic borderlands.
 - c. underdeveloped economies and lack of industry.
 - d. lack of a strong democratic tradition.
 - e. weak middle class and continued aristocratic influence.

6. To gain power in Germany, Hitler and the Nazi Party after 1923 attempted to:
 - a. create a mass political movement and promote disorder.
 - b. overthrow the Weimar Republic by armed force.
 - c. form an alliance with the Catholic Center Party.
 - d. win support by accepting the Versailles settlement.
 - e. join with Soviet agitators in plotting a coup.
7. Which of the following best characterizes the Soviet economy from 1928 to 1938?
 - a. continuation of the New Economic Policy and more consumer goods.
 - b. rapidly declining levels of productivity due to the Great Purges.
 - c. centralization involving rapid industrialization and communal agriculture.
 - d. the development of a class of commercial farmers and wealthy merchants.
 - e. foreign aid leading to increasing levels of trade with Western Europe.
8. This painting by Pablo Picasso portrays:
 - a. a street riot in Berlin against hyperinflation.
 - b. Soviet efforts to liquidate the kulaks.
 - c. French resistance efforts during World War II.
 - d. killing of ethnic minorities during the Holocaust.
 - e. fascist bombing of civilians in the Spanish Civil War.



Guernica by Pablo Picasso (Spanish, 1881–1973)

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9. The western democracies' policy of appeasement reached its height during the:
 - a. Kellogg-Briand Pact.
 - b. Munich Conference.
 - c. *Anschluss* of Austria.
 - d. Spanish Civil War.
 - e. Rapallo Pact.

made an agreement with the Pope that he would tell all of the Italians to be Catholic if the Pope recognized the Italian state. Some totalitarian leaders such as Stalin would not have made any concessions to anyone, let alone a person of the clergy. So although Mussolini was the first leader to practice the rule of totalitarianism, he did not follow all of the practices as well as some later leaders.

One such later leader was Hitler who was also a totalitarian leader, but followed more of the facets of totalitarianism than Mussolini. Hitler like Mussolini demanded the active support of the citizens because without this a leader is not truly totalitarian. Hitler also created fear and chaos in Germany with his Storm Troops. Once again like Mussolini, Hitler was seen as a leader of order which is important in totalitarian rulers. Also Hitler similarly to Mussolini got rid of all other political competition. Also like Mussolini, Hitler had a hand in assassinating another political leader, in this case Rohm. Also Hitler violently put down any other political parties with force and violence. This is where Hitler becomes more of a totalitarian leader than Mussolini. Not only did Hitler control the press like Mussolini, but Hitler fully used propaganda to further his cause and gain the active support of the citizens. Hitler had a whole ministry devoted to propaganda all used to change the mindset of the people. Also Hitler had more use of groups to enhance the active support of the citizens. He had youth groups which instilled the Nazi viewpoints in children as well as instilling them in school, which of course was mandatory. But Hitler also had groups and rallies for adults. The most famous and most influential of these was the Nuremberg Rallies, which gathered millions of Germans together and created a great sense of camaraderie and also produced active support for the totalitarian rule of Hitler. But not even Hitler was a perfect example of totalitarian rule, although he was the closest to it. Hitler too made a Concordat with the Catholic churches in Germany. Even though by doing this it furthered his power, making concessions to churches of religious people is not in the concept of totalitarianism. Although Hitler wasn't the first totalitarian leader, he put into play more of the theories of totalitarianism than the first, Mussolini of Italy.

The main concept behind totalitarianism is the active support of the citizens which both leaders received, although Hitler had more. Also important to totalitarian leaders is chaos, which was created by the Storm Troops and squadristi. Both leaders also eliminated all potential political competition by assassinating other leaders like Matteoti and Rohm. Having no other competition is important to totalitarian leaders. Both had control of the press, but Hitler was the only one who used it to his advantage, making him a more totalitarian leader. Also, Hitler had more rallies and groups to make his citizens more active than the Italians. But both leaders made concessions with the Church which does not truly follow the concept of totalitarianism.

This sample essay is a very strong response. From the outset, the student displays control of the question by defining the key characteristics of totalitarianism. In addition, an explicit comparison, if somewhat general, is given regarding Hitler's closer approximation to the theory than Mussolini. Both of the body paragraphs provide full treatment of each nation with several specific examples. Despite a few unclear references—e.g., Mussolini's use of propaganda—the essay offers more than enough support to show student mastery of the topic. The discussion of Hitler's propaganda techniques and policies related to the church illustrates a higher grasp of the material. Though the conclusion tends to repeat previous points, it certainly does not detract from an already strong essay. Score: 9.