

**Ministry of Science and Education of Ukraine
Lesia Ukrainka Eastern European National University
International Relations Faculty
International Communications and Political Analysis Department**

HISTORY OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS (16-20th centuries)

GUIDELINES

of a normative academic subject of the training of bachelors of
branch of expertise – 29 “International Relations”,
specialty – 055 «International Relations, Public Communications and Country Studies»,
program – “International Relations”

Lutsk 2017

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К 26

*Рекомендовано вченою радою факультету міжнародних відносин
Східноєвропейського національного університету імені Лесі Українки
(протокол № 7 від 9 березня 2017 р.)*

Рецензенти

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К 26

Карпчук Н.П.

Історія міжнародних відносин (16-20 століття): методичні рекомендації для студентів галузі знань 29 «міжнародні відносини», спеціальності 055 «міжнародні відносини, суспільні комунікації та регіональні студії», програми «міжнародні відносини» / Н. П. Карпчук. – Луцьк, 2017. – 39 с.

Видання містить комплекс завдань: тематику лекційного курсу, семінарські заняття, перелік питань для самоконтролю, список рекомендованих джерел, словник основних понять та подій.

Для бакалаврів галузі знань 29 «міжнародні відносини», спеціальності 055 «міжнародні відносини, суспільні комунікації та регіональні студії», програми «міжнародні відносини».

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EXPLANATORY NOTE

The **goal** of teaching “History of International Relations (16-20th centuries)” is to familiarize students with the basic features of international relations and diplomacy during the defined period.

The main **tasks** of “History of international relations (16-20th centuries)” are

- to find out the main features of international relations in various regions of the world in the period between world wars and during WWII;

- to describe the foreign policy of famous historical figures in the period between world wars and during WWII;

- to describe the factors that determine the specificity of international relations in the period between world wars and during WWII.

In accordance with the requirements of the educational and professional program students must **know**:

major periods in the history of international relations and their characteristics.

manage

- to determine the causes, nature and consequences of the political process;

- to assess the political figures and events;

- to highlight the main factors that cause changes in the alignment of political forces in the international arena and outline their implications.

THE PROGRAMME OF THE ACADEMIC SUBJECT

CONTENT MODULE I. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND FOREIGN POLICY OF THE NEW ERA

Topic 1. International Relations and Diplomacy of the period of the Thirty Years' War

The main factors that led to the beginning of the Thirty Years' War. Interests of major participants in the Thirty Years' War. General characteristics of the Thirty Years War. Features of the first, Czech, stage. Its main results. Reasons for the defeat. The second (Danish) period of the war. Tactics of Albrecht von Wallenstein. Highlights of the second period. The essence of the Edict of Restitution. The third (Swedish) period. Reform of Gustav II Adolf. Third (French-Swedish) period and its features. Conference in Münster and Osnabrück: peculiarities of negotiations; causes of change in the course of negotiations. The main provisions of the Peace of Westphalia.

Topic 2. International Relations and Diplomacy of the Great French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars

The position of the French bourgeois revolution in the world history. The main periods of revolution and their main characteristics. Anti-French coalition. The reasons of the struggle exacerbating. The essence of military reform Jacobins. The reasons for the military success of the revolutionary army. The figure of Napoleon Bonaparte. The Italian campaign peace. Egyptian campaign. Period consulate. Battle of Trafalgar and its historical significance. Continental System and the reasons for its inefficiency. Tilzyskyy peace. Going to Russia and the reasons for its failure. The defeat of Napoleon and his abdication. Congress of Vienna: Actors, contradictions decision. The figure of Charles M. Talleyrand. Hundred Days of Napoleon. Waterloo.

Topic 3. Features and factors of international relations in the XIX century.

The industrial revolution and the technological revolution as a factor of peace in the late XVIII – early XX century. Features of the social, political, economic and cultural processes. The revolutionary nature of the changes that took place.

Topic 4. U.S. and Britain foreign policy in a new era

History of the U.S. foreign policy. Expanding the boundaries of the United States during the late XVIII – early XIX century. The main event features the results. Monroe Doctrine: the nature,

characteristics and role in U.S. foreign policy. Activation of foreign policy in the late XIX century. Main priorities and instruments. Penetration into Latin America. Features of the establishment of control over the Panama Canal and its role in the U.S. foreign policy strategy. Spanish-American War as the first war for the redistribution of the world. Features of the Battle of Manila Bay. The main results of the Spanish-American War. Features European reaction to events.

The position of the UK in global politics in the context of late XVIII – early XIX century. The status of "workshop of the world", "world's banker", "global carrier." Free trader's Policy. William Gladstone's political course. The doctrine of "splendid isolation": the nature, sources, manifestations. The doctrine of double advantage at sea. The reasons of the loss of leadership position. Ways of overcoming the economic backwardness. Benjamin Disraeli and the main steps of its foreign policy. Features of taking control over the Suez Canal. Opium Wars.

Topic 5. Foreign Policy of the Russian Empire and Japan in the XIX – early XX century

Features of the foreign status of the Russian Empire in the mid- XIX. Value Napoleonic victory over France. "Gendarme of Europe". Crimean War: causes and conditions. The turning point in the war - UK and France assistance. The sinking of Black Sea Fleet. Defense of Sevastopol. Paris peace. Reforms of Alexander II: goals and directions. Modernization of the Russian Empire. penetration into Central Asia. Conflicts with Britain. Russo-Turkish War. San Stefano peace and Berlin Congress. Value decisions of the Berlin Congress for Russian foreign policy strategy.

Historical features of "opening" of Japan and the imposition of unequal conditions of the country. Meiji Revolution and the way to solve the tasks of the foreign policy of Japan. Upgrading / "Westernization" of Japan and its features. Results of the Meiji period in Japan. Japanese-English agreement. Strengthening the position in the Asia-Pacific region. Russo-Japanese War and the Portsmouth Peace.

CONTENT MODULE II. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND DIPLOMACY OF THE 1st HALF OF THE XXth CENTURY

Topic 6. International Relations during the First World War

The balance of political powers on the world stage before World War I. The colonial empires of Britain, France and Germany. The imperialist contradictions and conflicts in the late XIX – early XX century in Asia and Africa. War of the redistribution of the world. Promotion of the German positions in the colonial space. Formation of the military-political blocs: the goals and characteristics of participants of the process. Military expenditures of the leading countries before World War I. Causes and drive to the World War. Military plans of the parties. Schlieffen's Plan. Technical prerequisites of military conflicts. Overview of the First World War and its features. Major developments in Western and Eastern Front. Key battles. Other fronts. Compiègne truce and its conditions. The main outcome of the war.

Topic 7. Paris Peace Conference and Washington Conference

Results of the First World War. General characteristics of the Paris conference. The "Fourteen Points" of Woodrow Wilson. The Council of Ten. The "Big Four", "Big Five".

Treaty of Versailles. Territorial losses of German, its military restrictions, the problem of reparations. Treaties with Germany's allies: Saint-Germain (Austria); Neuilly (Bulgaria); Trianon (Hungary); Sevres and Lausanne (Turkey).

League of Nations: the main problem, the governing bodies of activities. The reasons for the low efficiency of the organization. League of Nations mandate system.

General characteristics of the Washington Conference. Four-Power Treaty. Nine-Power Treaty. Five-Power Treaty. Main contradictions and results. Open Door policy in China. The naval bases. Loss of the UK's sea leadership. Sources of dissatisfaction of Japan. The essence of the main compromises.

Topic 8. The policy of appeasement and its collapse

Aggressive steps of Adolf Hitler: withdrawal from the League of Nations; adoption of the "four-year plan"; non-aggression pact with Poland. Recovery of general military duty. German-

British agreement on fleets. Denunciation of Locarno Agreement and the entry into the demilitarized Rhineland – the end of the Versailles order. Anti-Comintern Pact of November 1936 : collaboration with Japan against the common enemy (USSR).

Disclosure of Adolf Hitler's military plans - Hossbach Memorandum (November 1937). Anschluss of Austria in March 1938. Munich Agreement between Hitler, Mussolini, Chamberlain and Daladier: assignment of Sudetenland to Germany. Elimination of Czechoslovakia - the formation of the Reichprotektorat of Bohemia and Moravia.

Seizure of Memel by Germany. German demands on Poland in March 1939 and denunciation of German-Polish Non-Aggression Pact and the German-British agreement on fleets. The German-Soviet non-aggression Pact with secret additional protocol - the division of spheres of influence between Germany and the Soviet Union in Central and Eastern Europe. The beginning of World War II - attack on Poland. Phony War, its causes and consequences.

Topic 9. The beginning of WWII

Invasion of Poland: Fall Weiß (Case White). Operation Weserübung: the code name for Germany's assault on Denmark and Norway. Reasons of corrections in the Hitler's strategic plan. The main features of the operation. The role of the fifth column. Key lessons. The attack on Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Belgium and France. Plans, correlation of forces and parties. "Case Yellow". Blitzkrieg tactics of Germany. Battle of Dunkirk. Reasons for delay of German troops. The figure of Charles de Gaulle, the French differing positions of leadership. The capitulation of France. Vichy Republic and puppet government of Petain. Losses of the parties and the main results.

Battle of Britain. "Operation Sea Lion" - UK plans to strike and the reasons for their lack of implementation. Air war between Britain and Germany, its features. Personality of G. Goering. The invasion of the Balkans. Military operations in Greece. The balance of forces. The reasons for the collapse of the offensive by B. Mussolini. Entrance of Germany to the war. The positions of the parties. The invasion of Yugoslavia. Seizure of Greece. Seizure of Crete. Features of the operation and its results

The invasion of eastern Poland. Reasons for delay and diplomatic correspondence features between the USSR and Germany. Start offensive. Common parades and coordination of regional issues. Treaty of Friendship and border. Khatyn and the fate of Polish prisoners of war. Conclusion of agreements on mutual assistance between the Baltic States and the Soviet Union. Ultimatum to Baltic governments and accession of the Republics to the USSR.

Soviet-Finnish War. Reasons of the conflict. Ultimatum and provocation. The balance of forces. Causes of the stop of offensive. Mannerheim Line and tactics of the Finns. Background and features of the Soviet offensive in February 1940. Highlights of the Winter War. Moscow Treaty. Ultimatum to Romania and the accession of Bessarabia and Bukovina.

CONTENT MODULE III. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS IN THE COLD WAR PERIOD

Topic 10. Ideological preconditions of "Cold War". J. Kennan and "Long Telegram"

Features of the international situation after World War II. General atmosphere in the victors. The essence of the Cold War. The main features of the Cold War. The stages of the Cold War. The basic version, explaining the reasons for the beginning of the Cold War. Winston Churchill's speech in Fulton. Stalin's Interview in "Pravda". J. Kennan. Kennan's Long telegram and its role in the transition to the bloc confrontation. Evaluation of Long telegram provisions.

Topic 11. US foreign policy under Presidents Truman and Eisenhower

The changes in the international status after the Second World War. The main features of the foreign policy of Truman. Initiatives to introduce international control over nuclear weapons. Offers by B. Baruch and A. Gromyko. The policy of "containment of communism". The Marshall Plan.

Berlin Airlift. Formation of military-political blocs: NATO, ANZUS. McCarthy as a Page in the US political history. Korean crisis.

Features of Eisenhower foreign policy doctrine. Doctrine of "Rejection of communism" ("Liberation"), "massive retaliation" and "filling the vacuum". Compliance of election messages and their real exchange rate. Connection with the policy of John F. Kennedy. General characteristics of the Korean War. "The new positive foreign policy" of John F. Dulles and its main results. Results of Eisenhower travels to South America.

Topic 12. US foreign policy under President John. F. Kennedy and his successors

Features of a political portrait of John. F. Kennedy. The main essence and key priorities of "new frontiers". The main US foreign policy doctrine. The doctrine of flexible response. Operation on the landing in Cuba counterrevolutionary forces in the Gulf Kochynos at Playa Giron. The program of socio-economic development of Latin America "Alliance for Progress". The first phase of the Vietnam War. Berlin crisis in 1961. Caribbean crisis and its consequences. Treaty Banning Nuclear Weapon Tests in the Atmosphere, in Outer Space and Under Water (Moscow Treaty). "Kennedy Round" of negotiations between the US and European countries on the mutual reduction of tariffs under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade. The murder of John. F. Kennedy.

Foreign Policy of L. Johnson. The increasing military aid to Vietnam. Intervention in 1965, a civil war in the Dominican Republic. Summit in Glassboro: negotiations between President Johnson and Soviet Premier Kosygin.

"Guam doctrine" of R. Nixon. "Detente" ("realistic deterrence"). Nixon's visit to Beijing and establishing diplomatic relations with China ("Ping-pong diplomacy"). The first official visit to the USSR of a US president. Signing the agreement on strategic arms limitations (SALT-1). Results of the visits 1972-1974 biennium. Apollo-Soyuz Test Project. The agreement ending the war and restoring peace in Vietnam. Politics in Chile. Removing Allende. The dictatorship of Pinochet. Watergate affair and its consequences.

During the presidency of John Ford: the economic crisis, the effects of the political crisis, the end of the Vietnam War. Pacific doctrine under the presidency of J. Carter: failure in the release of US diplomats in Tehran, where Islamic revolution took place (1979 p.). The new phase of the energy crisis (1979-1980 pp.). The doctrine of "priority of moral values," "quick response." The conclusion of Camp David agreement between Egypt and Israel, an agreement with Panama on a gradual transfer of its jurisdiction over the Panama Canal (1977). The contract with the USSR on Strategic Arms Reduction (SALT-2).

Topic 13. Soviet foreign policy in a "Cold War" period

The growing influence of the Soviet Union on the international stage after the Second World War. Features of Stalin's foreign policy. The formation of the socialist camp and the peculiarities of international relations among socialist countries. "Soft model" of spreading influence in the region. The second phase of relations - the imposition of "Stalinist" model. Cominform and its role in the transition to a single Soviet model of development. Soviet-Yugoslav conflict. Figure of J. B. Tito. CEA and features of its functioning. The national liberation movement in the policy of the USSR. Establishment of cooperation with China. Requirements for regime change of the Straits, return Kara and Ardahan districts to the USSR that became Turkish in 1921, the participation of the USSR in the management of Tangier (Morocco), and statements of interest in changing the political regime in Syria, Lebanon, a number of Italian colonies in Africa. The evaluation of these initiatives by V. Molotov.

The political portrait of Khrushchev. "Thaw" in international relations. Major successes of the USSR cease-fire in Korea; recognition of the independence of Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia at the

Geneva conference; normalization of relations with Turkey; complete occupation of Austria; establishing relations with Germany and Japan. The policy of "peaceful coexistence." The arms race. Berlin crisis and the construction of the Berlin Wall. Relations with the socialist countries. Reconciliation of Yugoslavia. De-Stalinization in Eastern Europe. Formation of the Warsaw Pact. The events in Poland - Poznan. Hungarian events in 1956. Relations with China: causes and consequences. Third World foreign policy strategy of Khrushchev. The decolonization phenomenon of international life in the 2nd half of the twentieth century. Nasser and the relationship with Egypt. Syria. African countries as the Soviet sphere of interest. The Cuban revolution and its consequences. Fidel Castro Ruz.

Extraordinary opinion of L. Brezhnev, D. Tabachnyk on foreign policy. Progress in the position of the USSR L. Brezhnev. "Detente" and its features. Czechoslovak events of 1968 "Brezhnev Doctrine". events on the Damanski island. Restrictions of arms race. Third World foreign policy of Moscow. The crisis of pro-Soviet regimes. Strengthening military intervention. CSCE and its consequences. Afghan war. The events in Poland. Soviet-American relations.

Topic 14. Reagan and Gorbachev: the causes of the collapse of the USSR

The political portrait of Ronald Reagan. Path to the policies and main lines of its policy. Alliance with George. W. Bush. Departure from the policy of detente. The main features of Reaganomics. The policy of strengthening arms race. "Reagan Doctrine": support of anti regimes in Central America and the Caribbean, Angola. Support of the Mujahideen. "Reagan plan" to resolve the Palestinian issue. Events in Lebanon. The conflict in Libya. Iran-Contra scandal and its consequences.

The main features of the "new thinking" of Gorbachev. Concessions of the USSR termination of deployment of intermediate-range SS-20 in Eastern Europe; Soviet unilateral moratorium on nuclear testing. The meeting of Gorbachev (USSR) and Reagan (USA) in Geneva; signing an interim agreement on INF; reaching agreements on the reduction of nuclear offensive weapons. The program of the elimination of weapons of mass destruction by the end of the century. Meeting of leaders of the USSR and the USA in Reykjavik; agreement of 5% reduction of strategic offensive weapons within five years. Soviet-American treaty of 1987 on the elimination of intermediate and short range in Europe. Getting policy of national reconciliation in hot spots: Angola, Ethiopia, Nicaragua, Afghanistan and Cambodia. The beginning of the withdrawal of Soviet and Cuban troops from these countries. The completion of the withdrawal of Soviet troops from Afghanistan in 1989. Meeting of Gorbachev and George. W. Bush in Malta. Joint statement on the completion of the "cold war." Agreement between NATO and the Warsaw Pact on conventional arms reduction in Europe. The beginning of the Soviet withdrawal from Eastern Europe. The unification of Germany. Soviet-American agreement on reducing strategic offensive arms. Liquidation of the Warsaw Pact. Causes of "perestroika" and concessions USSR.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE ACADEMIC SUBJECT

Titles of the content modules and topics	Hours				
	Full-time study				
	Total amount	Including			
		L	S	Consult.	Indep.
1	2	3	4	5	6
Content module 1. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND FOREIGN POLICY OF THE NEW ERA					
Topic 1. International Relations and Diplomacy of the period of the Thirty Years' War	7	2	2	1	2
Topic 2. International Relations and Diplomacy of the Great French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars	5	2			3
Topic 3. Features and factors of international relations in the XIX century	9	2	2	1	3
Topic 4. U.S. and Britain foreign policy in a new era	4	2			2
Topic 5. Foreign Policy of the Russian Empire and Japan in the XIX – early XX century	7	2	2		3
Content module 2. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND DIPLOMACY OF THE 1st HALF OF THE XXth CENTURY					
Topic 6. International Relations during the First World War	8	2	2	1	3
Topic 7. Paris Peace Conference and Washington Conference	3				3
Topic 8. The policy of appeasement and its collapse	8	2	2	1	3
Topic 9. The beginning of WWII	7	2	2		3
Content module 3. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS IN THE COLD WAR PERIOD					
Topic 10. Ideological preconditions of "Cold War". J. Kennan and "Long Telegram"	8	2	2	1	3
Topic 11. US foreign policy under Presidents Truman and Eisenhower	5	2			3
Topic 12. US foreign policy under President John. F. Kennedy and his successors	7	2	2		3
Topic 13. Soviet foreign policy in a "Cold War" period	8	2	2	1	3
Topic 14. Reagan and Gorbachev:	5	2			3

the causes of the collapse of the USSR					
Total amount of hours	90	26	18	6	40

TOPICS OF SIMINARS

	Topic	Hours
	Seminar 1. International Relations and Diplomacy of the period of the Thirty Years' War. International Relations and Diplomacy of the Great French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars	2
	Seminar 2. Features and factors of international relations in the XIX century. U.S. and Britain foreign policy in a new era.	2
	Seminar 3. Foreign Policy of the Russian Empire and Japan in the XIX – early XX century	
	Seminar 4. International Relations during the First World War. Paris Peace Conference and Washington Conference	2
	Seminar 5. The policy of appeasement and its collapse	2
	Seminar 6. The beginning of WWII	
	Seminar 7. Ideological preconditions of "Cold War". J. Kennan and "Long Telegram". US foreign policy under Presidents Truman and Eisenhower	2
	Seminar 8. US foreign policy under President John. F. Kennedy and his successors	2
	Seminar 9. Soviet foreign policy in a "Cold War" period. Reagan and Gorbachev: the causes of the collapse of the USSR	2

INDEPENDENT WORK

	Topic	Hours
	Content module 1. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND FOREIGN POLICY OF THE NEW ERA	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analyze the historic context of international relations and diplomacy of the major powers. • Explain the reasons of wars and conflicts. • Find out the best practices of conflict resolving. 	10
	Content module 2. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS AND DIPLOMACY OF THE 1st HALF OF THE XXth CENTURY	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analyze the historic context of international relations and diplomacy in periods between World Wars. • Explain the reasons of wars and conflicts. • Find out the best practices of conflict resolving. 	15
	Content module 3. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS IN THE COLD WAR PERIOD	

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analyze the historic context of international relations and diplomacy of the World War II. • Explain the interests of belligerent parties. • Find out the best practices of conflict resolving. 	15
	Total	40

TEACHING METHODS

explanatory-illustrative (information and reception), reproductive, problem-solving, half-research, investigative.

THE FORM OF THE FINAL EVALUATION OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS: *exam.*

QUESTIONS FOR MODULE AND FINAL CONTROL

1. Results of the First World War. General characteristics of the Paris Peace Conference.
2. The "Fourteen Points" of Woodrow Wilson.
3. The Council of Ten. The "Big Four", "Big Five".
4. Treaty of Versailles. Territorial losses of German, its military restrictions, the problem of reparations. Treaties with Germany's allies: Saint-Germain (Austria); Neuilly (Bulgaria); Trianon (Hungary); Sevres and Lausanne (Turkey).
5. League of Nations: the main problem, the governing bodies of activities. The reasons for the low efficiency of the organization.
6. League of Nations mandate system.
7. General characteristics of the Washington Conference.
8. Four-Power Treaty. Nine-Power Treaty. Five-Power Treaty. Main contradictions and results.
9. Open Door policy in China.
10. Loss of the UK's sea leadership
11. The Russian issue in international relations in 1920-s.
12. Genoa Conference, objectives and positions of the parties.
13. Treaty of Rapallo between the Soviet Russia and Germany, its main consequences.
14. Hague Conference and its results.
15. Moscow conference in 1922 and its decisions. Special position of the USSR.
16. Lausanne Conference of 1922-1923 and its solutions.
17. Locarno Treaties in 1925 and Rhine guarantee pact.
18. The problem of reparations in international relations of 1920-s.
19. Dawes Plan of 1924.
20. The Hague Conference and adoption of the Young Plan. Highlights of reparations problem.
21. The Kellogg-Briand Pact, its role in international relations of the interwar period.
22. Polish-Czechoslovak war: the controversy over Cieszyn (1919).
23. The Free State of Fiume (1918-1924 pp.).
24. Soviet-Polish Conflicts (1920-1921 pp.).
25. Polish-Lithuanian war: seizure of Vilnius region (1920).
26. Greco-Turkish War (1919-1922).
27. The conflict in Upper Silesia (1921).
28. The conflict of the Åland Islands (1921).
29. Anglo-Soviet conflict (1923).
30. Ruhr crisis (1923).
31. The incident of the island of Corfu (1923 p.).

32. Anglo-Soviet conflict (1927).
33. Aggressive steps of Adolf Hitler: withdrawal from the League of Nations; adoption of the "four-year plan"; non-aggression pact with Poland. Recovery of general military duty.
34. German-British agreement on fleets.
35. Denunciation of Locarno Agreement and the entry into the demilitarized Rhineland – the end of the Versailles order.
36. Anti-Comintern Pact of November 1936 : collaboration with Japan against the common enemy (USSR).
37. Hossbach Memorandum (November 1937).
38. Anschluss of Austria in March 1938.
39. Munich Agreement between Hitler, Mussolini, Chamberlain and Daladier: assignment of Sudetenland to Germany.
40. Elimination of Czechoslovakia - the formation of the Reichprotektorat of Bohemia and Moravia.
41. Seizure of Memel by Germany.
42. German demands on Poland in March 1939 and denunciation of German-Polish Non-Aggression Pact and the German-British agreement on fleets.
43. The German-Soviet non-aggression Pact.
44. The attack on Poland. Phony War, its causes and consequences.
45. Invasion of Poland: Fall Weiß (Case White).
46. Operation Weserübung: the code name for Germany's assault on Denmark and Norway. Reasons of corrections in the Hitler's strategic plan.
47. The attack on Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Belgium and France.
48. "Case Yellow". Blitzkrieg tactics of Germany. Battle of Dunkirk.
49. The figure of Charles de Gaulle, the French differing positions of leadership.
50. Vichy Republic and puppet government of Petain.
51. Battle of Britain. "Operation Sea Lion".
52. Air war between Britain and Germany, its features.
53. Personality of G. Goering.
54. The invasion of the Balkans.
55. Military operations in Greece. The balance of forces.
56. The invasion of Yugoslavia.
57. Seizure of Greece.
58. Seizure of Crete. Features of the operation and its results
59. Military operations in North Africa.
60. Italy enters the war. The causes and conditions of military assistance to Germany.
61. Desert Fox - Rommel. Features of his tactics and key successes.
62. Radical turn in the course of hostilities - Battle at El Alamein. Figure of Montgomery. Operation of retreat.
63. Landing in Sicily.
64. The invasion of eastern Poland. Reasons for delay and diplomatic correspondence features between the USSR and Germany.
65. Khatyn and the fate of Polish prisoners of war.
66. Conclusion of agreements on mutual assistance between the Baltic States and the Soviet Union. Ultimatum to Baltic governments and accession of the Republics to the USSR.
67. Soviet-Finnish War. Reasons of the conflict. Ultimatum and provocation. Moscow Treaty.
68. Ultimatum to Romania and the accession of Bessarabia and Bukovina.
69. Operation Barbarossa.
70. The reasons for the collapse of the German Blitzkrieg.
71. Key battles of the front: Moscow, Stalingrad, Kursk.

- 72. The liberation of Soviet territory.
- 73. The liberation of Central Europe.
- 74. The opening of a second front. Meeting on the Elbe and the capitulation of Germany.
- 75. The emergence of the German question.
- 76. Military operations in the Pacific. The attack on Pearl Harbor.
- 77. Radical turn after the battle of Midway Atoll.
- 78. The reasons for the losses of military initiative in Japan.
- 79. Reset of atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Surrender of Japan and its position after the war.
- 80. Highlights of the Second World War.

**METHODS AND MEANS OF DIAGNOSTICS OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS:
oral evaluation, tests in written form, independent work.**

POINTS THE STUDENTS GET

Module 1: Current control (max = 40 points)									Module control (max = 60 points)		Total
									Module 2		
S.1	S.2	S.3	S.4	S.5	S.6	S.7	S.8	S.9	MTP 1	MTP 2	100
4	4	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	30	30	

If a student has not scored at least 75 points, he / she must pass the exam.

Evaluation scale: national and ECTS

The sum of points for all kinds of educational activity	Mark according to the national scale
90 – 100	Excellent
82 – 89	Very Good
75 - 81	Good
67 -74	Satisfactory
60 - 66	Enough
1 – 59	Unsatisfactory (with the possibility to pass the exam once more)

RECOMMENDED LITERATURE:

1. Бадак А.Н. Всемирная история. В 24 томах. Том 18. Канун Первой мировой войны / А.Н. Бадак, Н.М. Волчек и др. – Минск: Литература, 1997.
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VOCABULARY

Anglo-German Naval Agreement (June 18, 1935) was a naval agreement between Britain and Germany regulating the size of the Kriegsmarine in relation to the Royal Navy. The A.-G. N. A. fixed a ratio whereby the total tonnage of the Kriegsmarine was to be 35% of the total tonnage of the Royal Navy on a permanent basis. It was an ambitious attempt on the part of both London and Berlin to reach better relations, but it ultimately foundered because of conflicting expectations between the two states. For the Germans, the A.-G. N. A. was intended to mark the beginning of an Anglo-German alliance against France and the Soviet Union, whereas for the British, the A.-G. N. A. was to be the beginning of a series of arms limitation agreements that were made to limit German expansionism. The Agreement was highly controversial, both at the time and since, because the 35:100 tonnage ratio allowed Germany the right to build a Navy beyond the limits set by the Treaty of Versailles, and the British had made the agreement without consulting France or Italy first. The agreement was renounced by A. Hitler on April 28, 1939.

Anschluss (German “Union”) was a political union of Austria with Germany, achieved through annexation by A. Hitler in 1938. The Treaty of Versailles and the Treaty of Saint-Germain (both signed in 1919) explicitly prohibited the inclusion of Austria to politically join the German state. The constitutions of the Weimar Republic and the First Austrian Republic included the political goal of unification, which was widely supported by democratic parties. The Anschluss was among the first major steps of A. Hitler's creation of a Greater German Reich which was to include all ethnic German and all the lands and territories which the German Empire had lost after WWI.

There had been several years of pressure by supporters in both Austria and Germany (by both Nazis and non-Nazis) for the “Heim ins Reich” movement. Earlier, Nazi Germany had provided support for the Austrian National Socialist Party (Austrian Nazi Party) in its bid to seize power from Austria's Austrofascist leadership. Hitler sent an ultimatum to Austria's Chancellor Schuschnigg on 11 March 1938, demanding that he hand over all power to the Austrian Nazis or face an invasion. The ultimatum was set to expire at noon, but was extended by two hours. Without waiting for an answer, Hitler had already signed the order to send troops into Austria at one o'clock. Realizing that neither France nor Britain was willing to offer assistance, Schuschnigg resigned as chancellor that evening. In the radio broadcast in which he announced his resignation, he argued that he accepted the changes and allowed the Nazis to take over the government “to avoid the shedding of fraternal blood”. On the morning of 12 March, the 8th Army of the German Wehrmacht crossed the border to Austria. The troops were greeted by cheering German-Austrians with Nazi salutes, Nazi flags, and flowers. Because of this, the Nazi annexing is also called the Blumenkrieg (war of flowers), but its official name was Unternehmen Otto.

The enthusiasm that followed the invasion gave Hitler the cover to annex Austria outright on March 13. A controlled plebiscite of April 10 gave a 99.7 % approval. With the Anschluss, the German-speaking Republic of Austria ceased to exist as a fully independent state.

Anti-Comintern Pact was an anti-communist pact concluded between Nazi Germany and the Empire of Japan (later to be joined by other, mainly fascist, governments) on November 25, 1936 and was directed against the Third (Communist) International. In order to avoid damaging relations with the Soviet Union, the Pact was supposedly directed only against the Comintern, but in fact contained a secret agreement that in the event of either signatory power becoming involved with a war with the Soviet Union, the other signatory power would maintain a benevolent neutrality. In case of an attack by the Soviet Union against Germany or Japan, the two countries agreed to consult on what measures to take to safeguard their common interests. They also agreed that neither of them would make any political treaties with the Soviet Union, and Germany also agreed to recognize Manchukuo. The Anti-Comintern Pact was revised in 1941, after Germany's assault on the Soviet Union that commenced with Operation Barbarossa and on November 25 its renewal for another five years was celebrated.

Armistice in Compiegne of 11 November 1918 (after the location in which it was signed) was an armistice during the WWI between the Allies and Germany and the agreement that ended the fighting on the Western Front. It went into effect at 11 a.m. Paris time on 11 November 1918 (“the eleventh hour of the eleventh day of the eleventh month”), and marked a victory for the Allies and a complete defeat for Germany, although not formally a surrender. The Germans were responding to the policies proposed by U.S. President Woodrow Wilson in his Fourteen Points of January 1918. The actual terms, largely written by French Marshal Ferdinand Foch, included the cessation of hostilities, the withdrawal of German troops to behind their own borders, the preservation of infrastructure, the exchange of prisoners, a promise of reparations, the disposition of German warships and submarines, and conditions for prolonging or terminating the armistice. Although the armistice ended the actual fighting, it took six months of negotiations at the Paris Peace Conference to conclude the peace treaty, the Treaty of Versailles.

Balance of powers in Europe is an international relations concept that applies historically and currently to the nations of Europe. It is often known by the term European State System.

From 1815-1870, in the aftermath of Napoleon's near domination of Europe, the European power developed a system of military and political balance. The balance of power in Europe was a system that aimed to maintain international order and peace by following any increase in strength of one nation-state with an increase in strength of his geographic or political enemy, that is, no country would be willing to embark on a course of military expansion for fear of reprisal by an equally powerful force. The years 1870 and 1871 marked the consolidation of Italy and Germany, respectively, into viable and strong nation-states in the heart of Europe, changing the structure of the balance of power. With the creation of Germany in 1871, the old balance of power involving France, a rump Brandenburg-Prussia, Austria-Hungary, and Russia was replaced by a new system.

In the 19th century, the major European powers had gone to great lengths to maintain a balance of power throughout Europe, resulting in the existence of a complex network of political and military alliances throughout the continent by the WWI:

The Treaty of London (1839). Though not an alliance as such, this treaty was a commitment by Europe's great powers – including Great Britain and Prussia – to acknowledge, respect and defend the neutrality of Belgium. When German troops invaded Belgium in August 1914 they did so in defiance of this treaty, which was still in effect.

The Three Emperors League (1873). A three-way alliance between the ruling monarchs of Germany, Austria-Hungary and Russia. It was engineered and led, to a large degree, by Bismarck, as a means of securing the balance of power in Europe. Disorder in the Balkans and the Ottoman Empire undermined Russia's commitment to the league, which proved very unstable.

The Dual Alliance (1879). A binding military alliance between Germany and Austria-Hungary, requiring both nations to support the other if it was attacked by Russia. This agreement was welcomed by nationalists in Germany, who considered that German-speaking Austria should actually be a part of greater Germany.

The Triple Alliance (1882). A complex three-way alliance between Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy, containing anti-French undertones. Each signatory was committed to provide military support to the others, if they were attacked by two other powers – or if Germany and Italy were attacked by France.

The Franco-Russian Alliance (1894). A military alliance between France and Russia that restored cordial relations between the two. This agreement also undermined the increasing power of Germany and allowed French capitalists to invest in Russian mining and industry, providing economic benefits to both nations.

The Entente Cordiale (1904). Meaning ‘friendly agreement’, this series of agreements between Britain and France ended a century of hostility between the cross-channel neighbours. It was not a military alliance so neither nation was obliged to provide military support for the other.

The Anglo-Russian Entente (1907). An agreement between Britain and Russia which, like the Entente Cordiale, eased long-standing tensions between the two. It also resolved disagreements over

colonial possessions in the Middle East and Asia. It did not involve any military commitment or support.

The Triple Entente (1907). This treaty consolidated the Entente Cordiale and the Anglo-Russian Entente into a three-way agreement, securing amicable relations between Britain, France and Russia.

The clandestine nature of alliance formulation, along with the content of these agreements, only heightened suspicion and continental tensions which led to the WWI.

Battle of Britain is the name given to the WWII air campaign waged by the German Air Force (Luftwaffe) against the United Kingdom during the summer and autumn of 1940. The Battle of Britain was the first major campaign to be fought entirely by air forces, and was also the largest and most sustained aerial bombing campaign to that date. The German objective was to gain air superiority over the Royal Air Force (RAF). On 16 July 1940 Hitler ordered the preparation of a plan to invade Britain; he also hoped that news of the preparations would frighten Britain into peace negotiations. The Battle can be roughly divided into four phases: 1) 10 July – 11 August: Kanalkampf, (“the Channel battles”: a series of running fights over convoys in the English Channel. It was launched partly because the Nazi military leaders were not sure about what else to do, and partly because it gave German aircrews some training and a chance to probe the British defences); 2) 12–23 August: Adlerangriff (“Eagle Attack”), the early assault against the coastal airfields; the airfield attacks moved further inland, and repeated raids were made on the radar chain; 3) 24 August – 6 September: the Luftwaffe targets the airfields. The critical phase of the battle; Portsmouth, Birmingham, several areas of London were bombed. In retaliation, the RAF bombed Berlin on the night of 25–26 August, and continued bombing raids on Berlin; 4) 7 September onwards: the day attacks switch to British towns and cities. On 7 September, a massive series of raids involving nearly four hundred bombers and more than six hundred fighters targeted docks in the East End of London, day and night. On 15 September, two massive waves of German attacks were decisively repulsed by the RAF. The total casualties on this critical day were 60 German and 26 RAF aircraft shot down. The date of these air battles, 15 September, became known as Battle of Britain Day.

On 13 October 1940 Hitler again postponed the invasion “until the spring of 1941”; the invasion never happened, and October is regarded as the month regular bombing of Britain ended. It was not until Hitler's Directive 21 was issued, on 18 December 1940, that the threat of invasion finally dissipated.

Battle of France (also known as the Fall of France) was the German invasion of France and the Low Countries, executed from May 10, 1940, which ended the Phoney War. The battle consisted of two main operations: 1) *Fall Gelb* (Case Yellow), German armored units pushed through the Ardennes, to cut off and surround the Allied units that had advanced into Belgium. The British Expeditionary Force and many French soldiers were however evacuated from Dunkirk in Operation Dynamo; 2) *Fall Rot* (Case Red), executed from June 5, German forces outflanked the Maginot Line to attack the larger territory of France. Italy declared war on France on June 10. The French government fled to Bordeaux, and Paris was occupied on June 14. After the French Second Army Group surrendered on June 22, France capitulated on June 25 1940. For the Axis, the campaign was a spectacular victory.

France was divided into a German occupation zone in the north and west, a small Italian occupation zone in the southeast and a collaborationist rump state in the south, Vichy France. Southern France was occupied on November 10, 1942 and France remained under German occupation until after the Allied landings in 1944; the Low Countries were liberated in 1944 and 1945 when Nazi Germany was defeated by the Allied Powers.

“**Brezhnev Doctrine**” was a Soviet foreign policy announced to retroactively justify the invasion of Czechoslovakia in August 1968 that ended the Prague Spring, along with earlier Soviet military interventions, such as the invasion of Hungary in 1956. These interventions were meant to

put an end to liberalization efforts and uprisings that had the potential to compromise Soviet hegemony inside the Eastern Bloc, which was considered by the Soviets to be an essential defensive and strategic buffer in case hostilities with NATO.

In practice, the policy meant that only limited independence of the satellite states' communist parties was allowed and that no country would be allowed to compromise the cohesiveness of the Eastern Bloc in any way. That is, no country could leave the Warsaw Pact or disturb a ruling communist party's monopoly on power. Implicit in this doctrine was that the leadership of the Soviet Union reserved, for itself, the right to define "socialism" and "capitalism". Following the announcement of the B. D., numerous treaties were signed between the Soviet Union and its satellite states to reassert these points and to further ensure inter-state cooperation. The principles of the doctrine were so broad that the Soviets even used it to justify their military intervention in the non-Warsaw Pact nation of Afghanistan in 1979. The B. D. stayed in effect until it was ended with the Soviet reaction to the Polish crisis of 1980–81 when M. Gorbachev refused to use military force when Poland held free elections in 1989 and Solidarnosc defeated the Polish United Workers' Party.

Dawes Plan was an attempt following WWI for the Triple Entente to compromise and collect war reparations debt from Germany. D. P. was proposed by the Dawes Committee, chaired by Charles G. Dawes.

The Allied occupation of the Ruhr industrial area contributed to the hyperinflation crisis in Germany, partially because of its disabling effect on the German economy. The plan provided for an end to the Allied occupation, and a staggered payment plan for Germany's payment of war reparations. In an agreement of August 1924, the main points of the Dawes Plan were: 1. The Ruhr area was to be evacuated by Allied occupation troops. 2. Reparation payments would begin at one billion marks the first year, increasing annually to two and a half billion marks after five years. 3. The Reichsbank would be re-organized under Allied supervision. 4. The sources for the reparation money would include transportation, excise, and customs taxes. 5. Germany would be loaned 800 Million Marks from the USA.

It was an interim measure and proved unworkable. The Young Plan was adopted in 1929 to replace it.

"Fourteen Points" by Woodrow Wilson was a statement of principles for world peace that was to be used for peace negotiations in order to end WWI. The principles were outlined in a January 8, 1918 speech on war aims and peace terms to the United States Congress by President Woodrow Wilson. Europeans generally welcomed Wilson's points but his main Allied colleagues (Georges Clemenceau of France, David Lloyd George of the United Kingdom, and Vittorio Orlando of Italy) were skeptical of the applicability of Wilsonian idealism. The programme of the world's peace included:

1. Open covenants of peace, openly arrived at, after which there shall be no private international understandings of any kind but diplomacy shall proceed always frankly and in the public view.

2. Absolute freedom of navigation upon the seas, outside territorial waters, alike in peace and in war, except as the seas may be closed in whole or in part by international action for the enforcement of international covenants.

3. The removal, so far as possible, of all economic barriers and the establishment of an equality of trade conditions among all the nations consenting to the peace and associating themselves for its maintenance.

4. Adequate guarantees given and taken that national armaments will be reduced to the lowest point consistent with domestic safety.

5. A free, open-minded, and absolutely impartial adjustment of all colonial claims, based upon a strict observance of the principle that in determining all such questions of sovereignty the interests of the populations concerned must have equal weight with the equitable claims of the government whose title is to be determined.

6. The evacuation of all Russian territory and such a settlement of all questions affecting Russia as will secure the best and freest cooperation of the other nations of the world in obtaining for her an unhampered and unembarrassed opportunity for the independent determination of her own political development and national policy and assure her of a sincere welcome into the society of free nations.

7. Belgium must be evacuated and restored, without any attempt to limit the sovereignty.

8. All French territory should be freed and the invaded portions restored.

9. A readjustment of the frontiers of Italy should be effected along clearly recognizable lines of nationality.

10. The peoples of Austria-Hungary should be accorded the freest opportunity to autonomous development.

11. Rumania, Serbia, and Montenegro should be evacuated; occupied territories restored; Serbia accorded free and secure access to the sea; and the relations of the several Balkan states to one another determined by friendly counsel along historically established lines of allegiance and nationality.

12. The Turkish portion of the present Ottoman Empire should be assured a secure sovereignty, but the other nationalities which are now under Turkish rule should be assured an undoubted security of life and an absolutely unmolested opportunity of autonomous development, and the Dardanelles should be permanently opened as a free passage to the ships and commerce of all nations under international guarantees.

13. An independent Polish state should be erected which should include the territories inhabited by indisputably Polish populations, which should be assured a free and secure access to the sea, and whose political and economic independence and territorial integrity should be guaranteed by international covenant.

14. A general association of nations must be formed under specific covenants for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike.

French system of diplomacy was first formulated by Cardinal Richelieu and became the model for all European countries for three centuries until 1919. It carried the evolution of diplomatic institution into a new phase where the art of negotiation was established as one of the diplomatic. Distinctive features of the French system of diplomacy: 1) the art of negotiation: diplomacy (based on the system of a broad and comprehensive network of resident ambassadors) must do more than the collection and transmission of information, political manipulations, and the conduct of ceremonial rituals. There are two machineries of diplomatic negotiation: first, the most obvious fact about a negotiation is that it is about the art of concession and counter-concession, or trading of concessions; second, Richelieu emphasizes on the continuation of conducting negotiations with foreign countries; 2) *raison d'etat*, or the national interest, which replaced the medieval tradition of universal moral values as a guiding principle of foreign policy which means that in moments of danger one should choose one's allies, not for their integrity or charm, but for their physical or even geographical value; 3) professionalization: the establishment of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs by Richelieu in 1626 which became responsible for formulation of policy and the control of diplomatic agents.

Genoa Conference was held in Genoa, Italy in 1922 from 10 April to 19 May. At this conference, the representatives of 34 countries gathered to discuss global economic problems following World War I. The purpose was to formulate strategies to rebuild central and Eastern Europe, particularly Russia, after the war, and also to negotiate a relationship between European capitalist economies, and the new Russian Bolshevik regime. The conference set up four commissions to investigate ways to enlist foreign capital for the "restoration of Russia," which had been devastated by German invasion, revolution, and civil war. Negotiations foundered when France and Belgium, prerevolutionary Russia's main creditors, insisted on the integral repayment of prewar loans and integral restitution of confiscated foreign-owned property in Soviet Russia.

German-Polish Non-Aggression Pact was a treaty that was created between the Second Polish republic and Nazi Germany. This international treaty was signed on January 26, 1934. It stipulated the agreement of both countries to put an end to their problems by creating bilateral negotiations. They also agreed to forego their armed conflicts for ten years. In effect, this has normalized the relationship between Germany and Poland, which became quite strained because of the border disputed caused by the territorial settlement indicated in the Treaty of Versailles. Because of the peace treaty, Germany has recognized the borders of Poland and attempted to end the customs war that only damaged the economies of both countries. The 1934 Polish-German non-aggression pact, soon followed by a trade agreement with Germany, is said to have granted Germany a settled eastern border and allowed Hitler time for rearmament; five years later, he went on to successfully invade Poland.

German-Soviet Border and Commercial Agreement, signed on January 10, 1941, was a broad agreement settling border disputes and continuing raw materials and war machine trade between the Soviet Union and Nazi Germany. The agreement continued the countries' relations that started in 1939 with the Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact containing secret protocols dividing Eastern Europe between the Soviet Union and Germany, and the subsequent invasions by Germany and the Soviet Union of that territory. G.S.B.C.A. contained additional secret protocols settling a dispute regarding land in Lithuania previously split between the countries. The agreement continued Nazi-Soviet economic relations that had been expanded by the 1939 German-Soviet Commercial Agreement and the larger 1940 German – Soviet Commercial Agreement. The agreement proved to be short lived. Six months after it was signed, Germany invaded the Soviet Union, and economic relations between the two countries came to an end. The raw materials imported by Germany from the Soviet Union between 1939 and 1941 played a major role in supporting the German war effort against the Soviet Union after 1941.

German-Soviet Commercial Agreement, 1940 (also known as Economic Agreement) was an economic arrangement between the Soviet Union and Nazi Germany signed on February 11, 1940 by which the Soviet Union agreed in period from February 11, 1940 to February 11, 1941, in addition to the deliveries under German-Soviet Commercial Agreement, signed on August 19, 1939 deliver the commodities (oil, raw materials and grain) to the value of 420 to 430 million Reichsmarks. In payment for the Soviet deliveries, Germany shall supply its own products (war materiel; machinery and technologies; raw materials). Secret amendment to the Agreement suggested parties' negotiations in regards to the purchase by the Soviet Union of metals and other goods in third countries and to the sale of these metals and goods to Germany. Later the parties negotiated a policy of the transit through the Soviet territory third countries commodities purchased by Germany.

German-Soviet Credit Agreement, 1939 (also referred to as the German-Soviet Trade and Credit Agreement) was an economic arrangement between the Soviet Union and Nazi Germany whereby Soviet Union received an acceptance credit of 200 million Reichsmark over 7 years with an effective interest rate of 4.5 percent. The credit line was to be used during the next two years for purchase of capital goods (factory equipment, installations, machinery and machine tools, ships, vehicles, and other means of transport) in Germany and was to be paid off by means of Soviet material shipment from 1946 onwards. The economic agreement was the first step toward improvement in relations between the Soviet Union and Germany. The next day after the Credit Agreement, the Soviet Union went to war against Japan, in a successful four-week military campaign in the Far East. The Nazi-Soviet (Molotov – Ribbentrop) Pact was signed four days after the Credit Agreement. The 1939 German – Soviet Commercial Agreement renewed declined Nazi – Soviet economic relations and was adjusted and expanded with the larger German – Soviet Commercial Agreement in February 1940 and January 1941 German – Soviet Border and Commercial Agreement. German shipments to the Soviets became tardy and failed to provide all

that was promised the closer the date of Barbarossa came. The Soviets fulfilled their obligations to the letter right up until the invasion, wanting to avoid provoking Germany. All these agreements were terminated when Germany invaded the Soviet Union in June 1941, in violation of the treaties between the two countries. Soviet trade with Germany in the pre-invasion period ended up providing the Germans with many of the resources they needed for their invasion of the Soviet Union.

German unification into a politically and administratively integrated nation state officially occurred on 18 January 1871 at the Versailles Palace in the Hall of Mirrors in France. Princes of the German states gathered there to proclaim Wilhelm I of Prussia as German Emperor after the French capitulation in the Franco-Prussian War. Unofficially, the *de facto* transition of most of the German-speaking populations into a federated organization of states had been developing for some time through alliances formal and informal between princely rulers—but in fits and starts, as self-interests of parties hampered the process over nearly a century of aristocratic experimentation from the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire (1806) and the subsequent rise of nationalism over the span of the Napoleonic Wars era.

Two concepts of the unification were considered: 1) the concept of Greater Germany: the question of whether Austria, which contained a German speaking population and had historically been part of the Holy Roman Empire, should be included in a unified German state, along with other considerations of German-speaking areas, such as Schleswig-Holstein and Alsace-Lorraine; 2) the concept of Lesser Germany: Bismarck, the first Chancellor of the German Empire, decided against seeking to include Austria, fearing that this would foster the dominance of Roman Catholics in Germany as well as leading to the inclusion of the non-German populations of the Habsburg Empire. Therefore, with the Unification of Germany in 1871 and the establishment of the German Empire, the “Lesser German solution” prevailed.

Cold War was a state of political and military tension after WWII between powers in the Western Bloc (the United States, its NATO allies and others) and powers in the Eastern Bloc (the Soviet Union and its allies in the Warsaw Pact). Historians do not fully agree on the dates, but 1947–91 is common. The term “cold” is used because there was no large-scale fighting directly between the two sides, although there were major regional wars, known as proxy wars, supported by the two sides.

The first phase of the C.W. began in the first two years after the end of the WWII in 1945. The USSR consolidated its control over the states of the Eastern Bloc, while the United States began a strategy of global containment to challenge Soviet power, extending military and financial aid to the countries of Western Europe (e.g., supporting the anti-communist side in the Greek Civil War) and creating the NATO alliance. The Berlin Blockade (1948–49) was the first major crisis of the C.W. With the victory of the communist side in the Chinese Civil War and the outbreak of the Korean War (1950–53), the conflict expanded. The USSR and USA competed for influence in Latin America, and the decolonizing states of Africa and Asia. Meanwhile, the Hungarian Revolution of 1956 was stopped by the Soviets. The expansion and escalation sparked more crises, such as the Suez Crisis (1956), the Berlin Crisis of 1961, and the Cuban Missile Crisis of 1962. Following the Cuban Missile Crisis, a new phase began that saw the Sino-Soviet split complicate relations within the communist sphere, while US allies, particularly France, demonstrated greater independence of action. The USSR crushed the 1968 Prague Spring liberalization program in Czechoslovakia, and the Vietnam War (1955–75) ended with a defeat of the US-backed Republic of South Vietnam, prompting further adjustments.

By the 1970s, both sides had become interested in accommodations to create a more stable and predictable international system, inaugurating a period of détente that saw Strategic Arms Limitation Talks and the US opening relations with the People's Republic of China as a strategic counterweight to the Soviet Union. Détente collapsed at the end of the decade with the Soviet war in Afghanistan beginning in 1979. The United States increased diplomatic, military, and economic pressures on the Soviet Union, at a time when the communist state was already suffering from

economic stagnation. In the mid-1980s, the new Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev introduced the liberalizing reforms of perestroika and glasnost and ended Soviet involvement in Afghanistan. Pressures for national independence grew stronger in Eastern Europe, especially Poland. The result in 1989 was a wave of revolutions that peacefully (with the exception of the Romanian Revolution) overthrew all of the communist regimes of Central and Eastern Europe. The Communist Party of the Soviet Union itself lost control and was banned following a coup in August 1991. This in turn led to the formal dissolution of the USSR in December 1991.

Hague Conference was an international financial and economic conference at The Hague (the Netherlands), held from June 15 to July 19 1922 in accordance with the decision of the Genoa Conference of 1922. H.C. was attended by representatives of the states that had attended the Genoa Conference, except Germany. The Hague Conference was called to discuss the claims of the capitalist countries against the Soviet government because of the nationalization of the property of foreign capitalists, the repudiation of the debts of the tsarist and provisional governments, and questions of credit to Soviet Russia. The representatives of the capitalist countries, rejecting all the proposals of the Soviet delegation aimed at international cooperation, refused to discuss the question of credit at the H.C.; they insisted on the return of nationalized property to its former owners. The Soviet delegation resolutely declined these requests. Essentially, the Hague Conference did not adopt any decisions.

Hossbach Memorandum (named for the keeper of the minutes of the meeting, Hitler's military adjutant, Colonel Count Friedrich Hossbach) was the summary of a meeting on 5 November 1937 between German dictator Adolf Hitler and his military and foreign policy leadership where Hitler's future expansionist policies were outlined. The meeting marked a turning point in Hitler's foreign policies, which then began to radicalize. It outlined Hitler's plans for expansion in Europe. According to the H.M., Hitler did not want war with Britain and France in 1939. What he wanted was small wars of plunder to help support Germany's struggling economy. Hitler wanted a full-scale European war with Britain and France between 1941 and 1944 – 45. In Hitler's view, the German economy had reached such a state of crisis that the only way of stopping a drastic fall in living standards in Germany was to embark on a policy of aggression sooner rather than later to provide sufficient Lebensraum (“living space”) by seizing Austria and Czechoslovakia. Moreover, Hitler announced it was imperative to act sometime within the next five or six years before Britain and France, closed the gap in the Arms race, in which, Hitler noted, Germany was already falling behind.

Italian Unification (Risorgimento) was the political and social movement that consolidated different states of the Italian peninsula into the single state of the Kingdom of Italy in the 19th century. Despite a lack of consensus on the exact dates for the beginning and end of this period, many historians and scholars agree that the process began in 1815 with the Congress of Vienna and the end of Napoleonic rule, and was completed in 1871 when Rome became the capital of the Kingdom of Italy. The main impetus to the Risorgimento came from reforms introduced by the French when they dominated Italy during the period of the French Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars (1796–1815). A number of Italian states were briefly consolidated, first as republics and then as satellite states of the French empire, and, even more importantly, the Italian middle class grew in numbers and was allowed to participate in government.

There were three major obstacles to unity, i.e. 1) the Austrian occupation of Lombardy and Venice in the north, 2) the principality under the sovereignty of the pope, i.e. the Papal States that controlled the center of the Italian peninsula; and 3) the existence of various states that had maintained independence, such as the Kingdom of Sardinia, also called Piedmont-Sardinia, which was considered the most advanced state in Italy.

Two scenarios of Italian unification were promoted: 1) the unification “from the bottom” by means of revolutionary activity (supported by G. Garibaldi); 2) the unification “from the top” around the Kingdom of Sardinia (inspired by the Prime Minister of the Kingdom C. di Cavour).

Kellogg-Briand Pact (or Pact of Paris, officially General Treaty for Renunciation of War as an Instrument of National Policy) is a 1928 international agreement in which signatory states promised not to use war to resolve “disputes or conflicts of whatever nature or of whatever origin they may be, which may arise among them”. It was signed by Germany, France and the United States on August 27, 1928, and by most other nations soon after. Sponsored by France and the U.S., the Pact renounced the use of war and called for the peaceful settlement of disputes. Similar provisions were incorporated into the UN Charter and other treaties and it became a stepping stone to a more activist American policy. It is named after its authors, United States Secretary of State Frank B. Kellogg and French foreign minister Aristide Briand.

The 1928 Kellogg–Briand Pact was concluded outside the League of Nations, and remains in effect. As a practical matter, the Kellogg – Briand Pact did not live up to its aim of ending war, and in this sense it made no immediate contribution to international peace and proved to be ineffective in the years to come. Moreover, the pact erased the legal distinction between war and peace because the signatories, having renounced the use of war, began to wage wars without declaring them as in the Japanese invasion of Manchuria in 1931, the Italian invasion of Abyssinia in 1935, the Soviet invasion of Finland in 1939, the German and Soviet Union invasions of Poland. Notably, the pact served as the legal basis for the creation of the notion of crime against peace.

Kulturkampf of Bismarck (“culture struggle”), the bitter struggle (1871–87) on the part of the German chancellor Otto von Bismarck to subject the Roman Catholic church to state controls. Bismarck, a staunch Protestant, never fully trusted the loyalty of the Roman Catholics within his newly created German Empire. The Roman Catholics, who were represented politically by the Centre Party, distrusted the predominance of Protestant Prussia within the empire and often opposed Bismarck’s policies.

The conflict began in July 1871, when Bismarck, supported by the liberals, abolished the Roman Catholic bureau in the Prussian Ministry of Culture and in November forbade priests from voicing political opinions from the pulpit. In March 1872 all religious schools became subject to state inspection; in June all religious teachers were excluded from state schools, and the Jesuit order was dissolved in Germany; and in December diplomatic relations with the Vatican were severed. In 1873 the May Laws placed strict state controls over religious training and even over ecclesiastical appointments within the church. The climax of the struggle came in 1875, when civil marriage was made obligatory throughout Germany. Roman Catholics, however, strongly resisted Bismarck’s measures and opposed him effectively in the German parliament, where they doubled their representation in the 1874 elections. Kulturkampf failed.

League of Nations was an intergovernmental organisation founded on 10 January 1920 as a result of the Paris Peace Conference that ended the First World War. It was the first international organisation whose principal mission was to maintain world peace. Its primary goals, as stated in its Covenant, included preventing wars through collective security and disarmament and settling international disputes through negotiation and arbitration. Other issues in this and related treaties included labour conditions, just treatment of native inhabitants, human and drug trafficking, arms trade, global health, prisoners of war, and protection of minorities in Europe. At its greatest extent from 28 September 1934 to 23 February 1935, it had 58 members. The US President W. Wilson was a keen supporter of the creation of the L.N., but despite his efforts to establish and promote the League, for which he was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in October 1919, the United States did not join. Opposition in the Senate ensured that the United States would not ratify the agreement.

The League lacked its own armed force and depended on the Great Powers to enforce its resolutions, keep to its economic sanctions, or provide an army when needed. After a number of notable successes and some early failures in the 1920s, the League ultimately proved incapable of preventing aggression by the Axis powers in the 1930s. Germany withdrew from the League, as did Japan, Italy, Spain, and others. The onset of the WWII showed that the League had failed its primary purpose, which was to prevent any future world war. The League lasted for 26 years; the

United Nations replaced it after the end of the WWII on 20 April 1946 and inherited a number of agencies and organisations founded by the League.

Locarno Treaties were seven agreements negotiated at Locarno, Switzerland, on 5–16 October 1925 and formally signed in London on 1 December, in which the First World War Western European Allied powers and the new states of Central and Eastern Europe sought to secure the post-war territorial settlement, and return normalizing relations with defeated Germany. Locarno divided borders in Europe into two categories: 1) western, which were guaranteed by Locarno treaties, and 2) eastern borders of Germany with Poland, which were open for revision, thus leading to Germany's renewed claims to the German-populated Free City of Danzig and mixed ethnic Polish territories approved by the League of Nations including the Polish Corridor, and Upper Silesia.

The principal treaty concluded at Locarno was the “Rhineland Pact” between Germany, France, Belgium, the United Kingdom, and Italy. The first three signatories undertook not to attack each other, with the latter two acting as guarantors. In the event of aggression by any of the first three states against another, all other parties were to assist the country under attack. Germany also agreed to sign arbitration conventions with France and Belgium and arbitration treaties with Poland and Czechoslovakia, undertaking to refer disputes to an arbitration tribunal or to the Permanent Court of International Justice. France signed further treaties with Poland and Czechoslovakia, pledging mutual assistance in the event of conflict with Germany.

The Locarno Treaties were regarded as the keystone of the improved western European diplomatic climate of 1924 – 1930, introducing a hope for international peace, typically called the “spirit of Locarno”. This spirit was seen in Germany's admission to the League of Nations and in the subsequent withdrawal (completed in June 1930) of Allied troops from Germany's western Rhineland.

Molotov-Ribbentrop Pact (named after the Soviet and German foreign ministers, officially the Treaty of Non-aggression between Germany and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics) was a non-aggression pact signed in Moscow in the late hours of 23 August 1939. The pact's publicly stated intentions were a guarantee of non-belligerence by either party towards the other and a commitment that neither party would ally itself to or aid an enemy of the other party. In addition to stipulations of non-aggression, the treaty included a secret protocol that divided territories of Romania, Poland, Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia and Finland into German and Soviet “spheres of influence”, anticipating potential “territorial and political rearrangements” of these countries. The pact remained in force until the German government broke it by invading the Soviet Union on 22 June 1941.

Prehistory: starting in mid-March 1939, in attempts to contain Hitler's expansionism, the Soviet Union, Britain and France traded a number of suggestions and counterplans regarding a potential political and military agreement. In mid-June the main Tripartite negotiations started. The discussion was focused on potential guarantees to central and east European countries should a German aggression arise. The USSR proposed to consider that a political turn towards Germany by the Baltic states would constitute an “indirect aggression” towards the Soviet Union. Britain opposed such proposals, because they feared the Soviets' proposed language could justify a Soviet intervention in Finland and the Baltic states, or push those countries to seek closer relations with Germany. The discussion about a definition of “indirect aggression” became one of the sticking points between the parties. At the same time, throughout early 1939, Germany had secretly hinted to Soviet diplomats that it could offer better terms for a political agreement than Britain and France. In early August, Germany and the Soviet Union worked out the last details of their economic deal (German–Soviet Commercial Agreement), and started to discuss a political alliance. The day after the Pact was signed, the French and British military negotiation delegation urgently requested a meeting with Soviet military negotiator K. Voroshilov. On August 25, Voroshilov told them in view of the changed political situation, no useful purpose can be served in continuing the conversation. As result, on 25 August Britain entered into a defense pact with Poland. Consequently, Hitler

postponed his planned 26 August invasion of Poland to 1 September. Britain and France responded by guaranteeing the sovereignty of Poland, so later they declared war on Germany on 3 September.

Monroe Doctrine was a US foreign policy regarding Latin American countries in the early 19th century. It stated that further efforts by European nations to colonize land or interfere with states in North or South America would be viewed as acts of aggression, requiring U.S. intervention. At the same time, the doctrine noted that the United States would neither interfere with existing European colonies nor meddle in the internal concerns of European countries. President James Monroe first stated the doctrine during his seventh annual State of the Union Address to Congress. The term “Monroe Doctrine” itself was coined in 1850. By the end of the 19th century, Monroe's declaration was seen as a defining moment in the foreign policy of the United States.

The “Big Brother” policy was an extension of the Monroe Doctrine formulated by James G. Blaine in the 1880s that aimed to rally Latin American nations behind US leadership and to open their markets to US traders.

Munich Agreement was a settlement permitting Nazi Germany's annexation of portions of Czechoslovakia along the country's borders mainly inhabited by German speakers, for which a new territorial designation “Sudetenland” was coined. The agreement was negotiated at a conference held in Munich, Germany, among the major powers of Europe, excluding Russia and Czechoslovakia. Today, it is widely regarded as a failed act of appeasement toward Germany. The agreement was signed in the early hours of 30 September 1938 (but dated 29 September). The purpose of the conference was to discuss the future of the Sudetenland in the face of ethnic demands made by Adolf Hitler. The agreement was signed by Germany, France, the United Kingdom, and Italy. Because the state of Czechoslovakia was not invited to the conference, it considered itself to have been betrayed by the United Kingdom and France, so Czechs and Slovaks call the Munich Agreement the Munich Diktat.

Sudetenland was of immense strategic importance to Czechoslovakia, as most of its border defenses were situated there, and many of its banks and heavy industries were located there as well. In the early hours of 24 September, Hitler demanded that Czechoslovakia cede the Sudetenland to Germany no later than 28 September, with plebiscites to be held in unspecified areas under the supervision of German and Czechoslovak forces. If Czechoslovakia did not agree to the German demands by 2 pm on 28 September, Germany would take the Sudetenland by force. Czechoslovakia was informed by Britain and France that it could either resist Nazi Germany alone or submit to the prescribed annexations. The Czechoslovak government reluctantly capitulated (30 September) and agreed to abide by the agreement. The settlement gave Germany the Sudetenland starting 10 October, and *de facto* control over the rest of Czechoslovakia as long as Hitler promised to go no further. Sequence of events following the Munich Agreement: 1. Germany occupies the Sudetenland (October 1938). 2. Poland annexes Zaolzie, an area with a Polish plurality, over which the two countries had fought a war in 1919 (October 1938). 3. Hungary occupies border areas (southern third of Slovakia and southern Carpathian Ruthenia) with Hungarian minorities. 4. On March 15, 1939, during the German invasion of the remaining Czech territories, Hungary annexes Carpathian Ruthenia (which had been autonomous since October 1938). 5. Germany establishes the Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia with a puppet government, on March 16, 1939. 6. Meanwhile during the German invasion of Czech territories, a pro-Hitler Catholic-fascist government splits off the remaining territories of Czechoslovakia and declares the Slovak Republic, an Axis client state.

“**New frontiers**” is the term used by liberal, Democratic presidential candidate John F. Kennedy in his acceptance speech in the 1960 United States presidential election to the Democratic National Convention at the Los Angeles Memorial Coliseum as the Democratic slogan to inspire America to support him. The phrase developed into a label for his administration's domestic and foreign programs. Kennedy used the frontier metaphor because Americans were familiar with it. There was an understanding among most Americans that historically they had been adventurers,

bravely conquering new frontiers. The speech suggested there would be challenges ahead, but Kennedy was the president to lead the U.S. in those struggles. Another aspect of the New Frontier speech included the implication that Kennedy represented a new generation of American leadership, one with fresh ideas and not beholden to a stagnant past.

The New Frontier witnessed the passage of a broad range of important social and economic reforms, namely, unemployment benefits were expanded, aid was provided to cities to improve housing and transportation, funds were allocated to continue the construction of a national highway system, a water pollution control act was passed to protect the country's rivers and streams, and an agricultural act to raise farmers' incomes was made law. A significant amount of anti-poverty legislation was passed by Congress, including increases in social security benefits and in the minimum wage, several housing bills, and aid to economically distressed areas and so on. The Kennedy administration gave a strong priority to countering communist political subversion and guerrilla tactics in the so-called "wars of national liberation", in the rapidly decolonizing Third World. As well as fighting and winning a nuclear war, the American military was also trained and equipped for counterinsurgency operations. The U.S. Military increased in size and faced possible confrontation with the Soviets in Berlin Wall escalation of tensions in 1961 and with the Cuban Missile Crisis in 1962. American troops were sent to Laos and South Vietnam in increasing numbers. The United States provided a clandestine operation to supply military aid and support to Cuban exiles in the disastrous Bay of Pigs Invasion.

"New thinking" was M. Gorbachev's slogan for a foreign policy based on shared moral and ethical principles to solve global problems rather than on Marxist-Leninist concepts of irreconcilable conflict between capitalism and communism. It embraces a number of propositions about the nature of international relations in the modern world: human interests take precedence over the interests of any particular class; the world is becoming increasingly interdependent; there can be no victors in a nuclear war; security has to be based increasingly on political rather than military instruments; and security must be mutual, especially in the context of U.S.-Soviet relations, since if one side is insecure it will only make the other side insecure too. Gorbachev chose to exercise political influence, ranging from the enhancement of diplomatic relations and economic cooperation to personally greeting the public in spur-of-the-moment encounters at home and abroad. Gorbachev used the world media skillfully and made previously unimaginable concessions in the resolution of regional conflicts and arms negotiations. In addition to helping the Soviet Union gain wider acceptance among the family of nations, the New Thinking's conciliatory policies toward the West and the loosening of Soviet control over Eastern Europe ultimately led to the collapse of communism and the end of the Cold War.

Occupation of the Ruhr between 1923 and 1925, by troops from France and Belgium, was a response to the failure of Germany to pay reparations in the aftermath of WWI. Under the terms of the Treaty of Versailles (1919), which formally ended the war, Germany admitted responsibility for starting the war and was obliged to pay war reparations to the various Allies, principally France. Even with the reduction, the debt was huge. As some of the payments were in industrial raw materials, German factories were unable to function, and the German economy suffered, further damaging the country's ability to pay. By late 1922, the German defaults on payments had grown so regular that a crisis engulfed the Reparations Commission; the French and Belgian delegates urged occupying the Ruhr as a way of forcing Germany to pay more, while the British delegate urged a lowering of the payments. As a consequence of a German default on timber deliveries in December 1922, the Reparations Commission declared Germany in default, which led to the Franco-Belgian occupation of the Ruhr in January 1923. The real issue was not the German defaults on coal and timber deliveries but the sanctity of the Versailles treaty. France feared that letting the Germans defy Versailles in regards to the reparations would create a precedent that would lead to the Germans dismantling the rest of the Versailles treaty.

The occupation was greeted by a campaign of passive resistance. Approximately 130 German civilians were killed by the French occupation army during the events. Internationally the occupation did much to boost sympathy for Germany, although no action was taken in the League of Nations since it was technically legal under the Treaty of Versailles. The French, with their own economic problems, eventually accepted the Dawes Plan and withdrew from the occupied areas in July and August 1925.

Operation Barbarossa (original name Operation Fritz) during World War II was a code name for the German invasion of the Soviet Union, which was launched on June 22, 1941. The German offensive was launched by three army groups: Army Group North was to march through the Baltic states into northern Russia, either take or destroy the city of Leningrad and link up with Finnish forces; Army Group Center was to strike from Poland into Belorussia and the west-central regions of Russia proper, and advance to Smolensk and then Moscow; Army Group South was to strike the heavily populated and agricultural heartland of Ukraine, taking Kiev before continuing eastward over the steppes of southern USSR to the Volga with the aim of controlling the oil-rich Caucasus. Hitler saw the next benefits of the invasion: when the SU was defeated, the labor shortage in German industry could be relieved by demobilization of many soldiers; Ukraine would be a reliable source of agricultural products; having the SU as a source of forced labor under German rule would vastly improve Germany's geostrategic position; defeat of the Soviet Union would further isolate the Allies, especially the United Kingdom; the German economy needed more oil – controlling the Baku Oilfields would achieve this.

The leadership of the Wehrmacht paid little attention to politics, the economy or culture and the considerable industrial capacity of the Soviet Union was ignored as a factor, in favour of a very narrow military view. As a result the Wehrmacht was ill-informed about the Soviet military and economic capacity. It was assumed that the Soviet Union was destined to be defeated, and that it would take Germany between six to eight weeks to destroy the Soviet Union

The invasion along a 1,800-mile (2,900-km) front took the Soviet leadership completely by surprise and caught the Red Army in an unprepared and partially demobilized state. By mid-July the Germans had advanced more than 400 miles (640 km) and were only 200 miles (320 km) from Moscow. However in December 1941 the Soviet Army launched the counteroffensives, the Nazi lost the Battle of Moscow, all German plans for a quick defeat of the Soviet Union failed.

Causes of the failure of Operation Barbarossa: 1) underestimation of the capacity of Soviet mobilization; 2) faults of logistical planning; 3) wether. The failure of Operation Barbarossa was a turning point in the fortunes of the Third Reich. Most importantly, the operation opened up the Eastern Front, to which more forces were committed than in any other theater of war in world history.

Opium wars were two wars in the mid-19th century involving Anglo-Chinese disputes over British trade in China and China's sovereignty.

The First Opium War (1839–42), also known as the Opium War and as the Anglo-Chinese War, was fought between Great Britain and China over their conflicting viewpoints on diplomatic relations, trade, and the administration of justice for foreign nationals. The British traded opium for tea, for which Britain had acquired a great thirst. By the end of the 18th century Britain imported over six million pounds of tea per year from Canton. At first Britain struggled to maintain the trade as China would accept only silver as payment. Britain had been on the gold standard since the 18th century, so it had to purchase silver from continental Europe and Mexico to supply the Chinese appetite for silver. By 1817, the British had decided that counter-trading in narcotic Indian opium, was a way to reduce the trade deficit and to turn the Indian colony profitable. The Qing administration originally tolerated opium import, because it created an indirect tax on Chinese subjects, while allowing the British to double tea exports from China to England. Prior to the conflict, Chinese officials wished to end the spread of opium, and confiscated around 20,000 chests of opium from British traders. The First Opium War was concluded by the Treaty of Nanjing in 1842 that ceded the island of Hong Kong to the United Kingdom in perpetuity, and it established

five treaty ports at Shanghai, Canton, Ningpo, Fuchow, and Amoy. Another treaty the next year gave most favoured nation status to the United Kingdom and added provisions for British extraterritoriality. Then France secured concessions on the same terms as the British, in treaties of 1843 and 1844.

The Second Opium War (1856–1860), British forces fought towards legalization of the opium trade, to expand coolie trade, to open all of China to British merchants, and to exempt foreign imports from internal transit duties. France joined the British. The war is also known as the “Arrow War”, referring to the name of a vessel at the starting point of the conflict. The War resulted in a second group of treaty ports being set up; eventually more than 80 treaty ports were established in China, involving many foreign powers. All foreign traders gained rights to travel within China.

The wars and events between them weakened the Qing dynasty and reduced China's separation from the rest of the world.

Paris Peace Conference convened in January 1919 at Versailles outside Paris. The conference was called to establish the terms of the peace after World War I. Though nearly thirty nations participated, the representatives of the United Kingdom, France, the United States, and Italy became known as the “Big Four.” The “Big Four” dominated the proceedings that led to the formulation of the Treaty of Versailles, a treaty that ended World War I (*see* Treaty of Versailles). The major decisions were the creation of the League of Nations; the five peace treaties with defeated enemies, including the Treaty of Versailles with Germany; the awarding of German and Ottoman overseas possessions as “mandates,” chiefly to Britain and France; reparations imposed on Germany, and the drawing of new national boundaries (sometimes with plebiscites) to better reflect the forces of nationalism.

Peace of Westphalia was a series of peace treaties signed between May and October 1648 in the Westphalian cities of Osnabrück and Münster. These treaties ended the Thirty Years' War (1618–1648) in the Holy Roman Empire, and the Eighty Years' War (1568–1648) between Spain and the Dutch Republic, with Spain formally recognizing the independence of the Dutch Republic. The main tenets of the Peace of Westphalia were: 1) all parties would recognize the Peace of Augsburg of 1555, in which each prince would have the right to determine the religion of his own state, the options being Catholicism, Lutheranism, and now Calvinism; 2) Christians living in principalities where their denomination was not the established church were guaranteed the right to practice their faith in public during allotted hours and in private at their will; 3) general recognition of the exclusive sovereignty of each party over its lands, people, and agents abroad, and responsibility for the warlike acts of any of its citizens or agents. Issuance of unrestricted letters of marque and reprisal to privateers was forbidden.

The treaties did not restore peace throughout Europe, but they did create a basis for national self-determination. The P.W. established the precedent of peaces established by diplomatic congress, and a new system of political order in central Europe, later called Westphalian sovereignty, based upon the concept of co-existing sovereign states. Inter-state aggression was to be held in check by a balance of power. A norm was established against interference in another state's domestic affairs. As European influence spread across the globe, these Westphalian principles, especially the concept of sovereign states, became central to international law and to the prevailing world order.

Phoney war was an eight-month period at the start of WWII, during which there were no major military land operations on the Western Front. It began with the declaration of war by the western Allies (the United Kingdom and France) against Nazi Germany on 3 September 1939, following the German invasion of Poland, and ended with the German attack on France and the Low Countries on 10 May 1940.

Even though Poland was overrun in about five weeks in the German and Soviet Invasion of Poland beginning on 1 September 1939, the Western Allies did nothing. War had been declared by

each side, but no Western power committed to launching a significant land offensive, notwithstanding the terms of the Anglo-Polish and Franco-Polish military alliances which obliged the United Kingdom and France to assist Poland.

Potsdam Conference was held at Cecilienhof in Potsdam from 17 July to 2 August 1945. Participants were the Soviet Union (Communist Party General Secretary Joseph Stalin), the United Kingdom (Prime Ministers Winston Churchill, and, later, Clement Attlee) and the United States (President Harry S. Truman). The parties gathered to decide how to administer punishment to the defeated Nazi Germany, which had agreed to unconditional surrender nine weeks earlier, on 8 May 1945. The goals of the conference also included the establishment of post-war order, peace treaty issues, and countering the effects of the war.

The three Heads of Government agreed on the following actions: 1. Indochina: Allied Chiefs of Staff at the Potsdam Conference decided to temporarily partition Vietnam at the 17th parallel for the purposes of operational convenience. It was agreed that British forces would take the surrender of Japanese forces in Saigon for the southern half of Indochina, whilst Japanese troops in the northern half would surrender to the Chinese. 2. Germany: Division of Germany and Austria respectively into four occupation zones (earlier agreed in principle at Yalta), and the similar division of each capital, Berlin and Vienna, into four zones. Agreement on the prosecution of Nazi war criminals. Reversion of all German annexations in Europe, including Sudetenland, Alsace-Lorraine, Austria, and the westernmost parts of Poland. Germany's eastern border was to be shifted westwards to the Oder–Neisse line, effectively reducing Germany in size by approximately 25% compared to its 1937 borders. Agreement on war reparations to the Soviet Union from their zone of occupation in Germany. Destruction of German industrial war-potential through the destruction or control of all industry with military potential. 3. Poland: A Provisional Government of National Unity recognized by all three powers should be created. Poles who were serving in the British Army should be free to return to Poland, with no security upon their return to the communist country guaranteed. Parts of East Prussia and the former Free City of Danzig should be under Polish administration. The Soviet Union declared it would settle the reparation claims of Poland from its own share of the overall reparation payments.

Powder keg of Europe (alternately known as the “Balkan Powder Keg”) refers to the Balkans in the early part of the 20th century preceding WWI. Although the term specifically refers to tensions within the Balkan region, it also resembles the volatile dynamics within Europe during the time period. The time period featured many intertwining claims to territories and spheres of influence among key parts of Europe such as Austria-Hungary, Russia, Imperial Germany, and Italy, the Ottoman Empire and Great Britain to a lesser extent. The Balkan region includes southeastern Europe, with countries that include Albania, Serbia, Greece, Bulgaria and Yugoslavia. The Balkan states were under control of the Ottoman Empire for centuries. In addition to the imperialistic ambitions and interests in this region, there was a growth in nationalism with the indigenous peoples of this region leading to the formation of the independent states of Greece, Serbia, Montenegro, Bulgaria, Romania and Albania. The spark that ignited the powder keg was the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria. Due to a complex web of alliances such as the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy, and the Triple Entente of Great Britain, France and Russia, all of these countries and eventually the United States were drawn into the bloody conflict that became WWI.

“Reagan Doctrine” was a strategy orchestrated and implemented by the United States under the US President R. Reagan Administration to overwhelm the global influence of the Soviet Union during the final years of the Cold War. It was the centerpiece of United States foreign policy from the early 1980s until the end of the Cold War in 1991. Under the Reagan Doctrine, the United States provided overt and covert aid to anti-communist guerrillas and resistance movements in an effort to “roll back” Soviet-backed communist governments in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. The

doctrine was designed to diminish Soviet influence in these regions as part of the administration's overall Cold War strategy.

The Reagan Doctrine, while closely associated with the foreign policy of Ronald Reagan and his administration, continued into the administration of Reagan's successor, George H. W. Bush, who assumed the U.S. presidency in January 1989. But Bush's Presidency featured the final year of the Cold War and the Gulf War, and the Reagan Doctrine soon faded from U.S. policy as the Cold War ended.

“Rejection of communism” doctrine was announced by President Dwight D. Eisenhower in January 1957, and Congress approved it in March of the same year. Under the Eisenhower Doctrine, a country could request American economic assistance and/or aid from U.S. military forces if it was being threatened by armed aggression from another state. Eisenhower singled out the Soviet threat in his doctrine by authorizing the commitment of U.S. forces “to secure and protect the territorial integrity and political independence of such nations, requesting such aid against overt armed aggression from any nation controlled by international communism”.

In the global political context, the Doctrine was made in response to the possibility of a generalized war, threatened as a result of the latent threat of the Soviet Union becoming involved in Egypt after the Suez Crisis. Coupled with the power vacuum left by the decline of British and French power in the region after the U.S. protested against the conduct of their allies during the Suez War, Eisenhower felt that a strong position needed to better the situation was further complicated by the positions taken by Egypt's Gamal Abdel Nasser, who was rapidly building a power base and using it to play the Soviets and Americans against each other, taking a position of “positive neutrality” and accepting aid from the Soviets. On the regional level, the intent was that the Doctrine would help to provide the independent Arab regimes with an alternative to Nasser's political control, strengthening them while isolating Communist influence through isolation of Nasser. The Doctrine largely failed on that front, with Nasser's power quickly rising by 1959 to the point where he could shape the leadership outcomes in neighboring Arab countries, including Iraq and Saudi Arabia; in the meantime, Nasser's relationship with the Soviet leaders deteriorated, allowing the U.S. to switch to a policy of accommodation.

Remilitarization of Rhineland by the German Army took place on 7 March 1936 when German military forces entered the Rhineland. It violated the terms of the Treaty of Versailles and the Locarno Treaties. Under Articles 42, 43 and 44 of the 1919 Treaty of Versailles – imposed on Germany by the Allies after the Great War –Germany was “forbidden to maintain or construct any fortification either on the Left bank of the Rhine or on the Right bank to the west of a line drawn fifty kilometers to the East of the Rhine”; a violation “shall be regarded as committing a hostile act...and as calculated to disturb the peace of the world”. The Locarno Treaties, signed in October 1925 by Germany, France, Italy and Britain, stated that the Rhineland should continue its demilitarized status permanently. Long before 1933, German military and diplomatic elites had regarded the Rhineland's demilitarized status as only temporary, and planned to remilitarize the Rhineland at the first favourable diplomatic opportunity. In the fall of 1935, a serious economic crisis gripped Germany with well over half of the German people living below the poverty line and more damaging of all to the Nazi regime's popularity. In such a climate, Hitler was looking for a quick and easy foreign policy triumph to distract attention from the economic crisis. Not long after dawn on March 7, 1936, nineteen German infantry battalions and a handful of planes entered the Rhineland. When German troops marched into Cologne, a vast cheering crowd formed spontaneously to greet the soldiers, throwing flowers onto the Wehrmacht while Catholic priests offered to bless the soldiers. To capitalize on the vast popularity of the remilitarization, Hitler called a referendum on 29 March 1936 in which the majority of German voters (99 %) expressed their approval of the remilitarization. When the Council of the League of Nations met in London, the only delegate in favour of sanctions against Germany was the representative of the Soviet Union.

“Splendid isolation” was the foreign policy pursued by Great Britain during the late 19th century, especially under the Conservative Party premierships of Benjamin Disraeli and Robert Gascoyne-Cecil. The term was coined by a Canadian politician, George Eulas Foster (1847-1931), to praise Britain's minimal involvement in European affairs. During the late 19th century, Britain's primary goal in foreign policy was to maintain the balance of power in Europe and to intervene if that balance was upset. Its secondary goal was to protect its overseas interest in the colonies and dominions, as free trade was what kept the Empire alive. The sea routes to the colonies, especially those linking Britain to India (via the Suez Canal), were vital.

The policy of “splendid isolation” is perceived to have been characterised by a reluctance to enter into permanent European alliances or commitments with the other great powers and by an increase in the importance given to British colonies, protectorates and dependencies overseas in an era of increasing competition in the wider world, a situation that had been relatively unknown since Britain's conflicts with France during the 18th century.

Britain's isolation was formally ended by the 1902 Anglo-Japanese Alliance.

Tehran Conference (codenamed **Eureka**) was a strategy meeting held between Joseph Stalin, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and Winston Churchill from 28 November to 1 December 1943. It was held in the Soviet Embassy in Tehran, Iran and was the first of the WWII conferences held between all of the “Big Three” Allied leaders. Although all three of the leaders present arrived with differing objectives, the main outcome of the Tehran Conference was the commitment to the opening of a second front against Nazi Germany by the Western Allies. The declaration issued by the three leaders on conclusion of the conference on 1 December 1943, recorded the following military conclusions:

1. The Yugoslav Partisans should be supported by supplies and equipment and also by commando operations.
2. It would be desirable if Turkey should come into war on the side of the Allies before the end of the year.
3. The leaders took note of Stalin's statement that if Turkey found herself at war with Germany, and as a result Bulgaria declared war on Turkey or attacked her, the Soviet Union would immediately be at war with Bulgaria. The Conference further took note that this could be mentioned in the forthcoming negotiations to bring Turkey into the war.
4. The cross-channel invasion of France (Operation Overlord) would be launched during May 1944, in conjunction with an operation against southern France. The Conference further took note of Joseph Stalin's statement that the Soviet forces would launch an offensive at about the same time with the object of preventing the German forces from transferring from the Eastern to the Western Front.
5. The leaders agreed that the military staffs of the Three Powers should keep in close touch with each other in regard to the impending operations in Europe. In particular it was agreed that a cover plan to mislead the enemy about these operations should be concerted between the staffs concerned.

“Thaw” of N. Khrushchov refers to the period from the early 1950s to the early 1960s when repression and censorship in the Soviet Union were relaxed, and millions of Soviet political prisoners were released from Gulag labor camps due to N. Khrushchev's policies of de-Stalinization and peaceful coexistence with other nations. The Thaw became possible after the death of Joseph Stalin in March 1953.

Thaw initiated irreversible transformation of the entire Soviet society by opening up for some economic reforms and international trade, educational and cultural contacts, festivals, books by foreign authors, foreign movies, art shows, popular music, dances and new fashions, and massive involvement in international sport competitions. Such political and cultural updates all together helped liberate the minds of millions and changed public consciousness of several generations of people in the Soviet Union.

In the West, Khrushchev's Thaw is known as a temporary thaw in the icy tension between the United States and the USSR during the Cold War. Khrushchev's Thaw developed largely as a result of Khrushchev's theory of peaceful co-existence which believed the two superpowers (USA and USSR) and their ideologies could co-exist together, without war (peacefully). Khrushchev had

created the theory of peaceful existence in an attempt to reduce hostility between the two superpowers.

“The Great Game” (also called the **Tournament of Shadows**) was the strategic economic and political rivalry and conflict between the British Empire and the Russian Empire for supremacy in Central Asia at the expense of Afghanistan, Persia and the Central Asian Khanates/Emirates. The classic Great Game period is generally regarded as running approximately from the Russo-Persian Treaty of 1813 to the Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907, in which nations like the Emirate of Bukhara fell. A less intensive phase followed the Bolshevik Revolution of 1917, causing some trouble with Persia and Afghanistan until the mid 1920s.

In the post-Second World War post-colonial period, the term has informally continued in its usage to describe the geopolitical machinations of the Great Powers and regional powers as they strive for geopolitical power and influence in the area, especially in Afghanistan and Iran/Persia.

30 Years’ war was a series of wars in Central Europe between 1618 and 1648. It was one of the longest, most destructive conflicts in European history. Initially a war between Protestant and Catholic states in the fragmenting Holy Roman Empire, it gradually developed into a more general conflict involving most of the great powers of Europe, becoming less about religion and more a continuation of the France–Habsburg rivalry for European political pre-eminence.

The war began when the Holy Roman Empire tried to impose religious uniformity on its domains. The northern Protestant states, angered by the violation of their rights, banded together to form the Protestant Union.

The Thirty Years' War had the devastation of entire regions, with famine and disease significantly decreasing the populations of the German and Italian states, the Kingdom of Bohemia, and the Low Countries. Both mercenaries and soldiers in fighting armies were expected to fund themselves by looting or extorting tribute, which imposed severe hardships on the inhabitants of occupied territories. The war also bankrupted most of the combatant powers. A notable exception was the newly independent Dutch Republic, which subsequently enjoyed a time of great prosperity and development, as it became one of the world's foremost economic and naval powers. The Thirty Years' War ended with the treaties of Osnabrück and Münster, part of the wider Peace of Westphalia. The war altered the previous political order of European Powers. The rise of Bourbon France, the curtailing of Habsburg ambition, and the ascendancy of Sweden as a great power created a new balance of power on the continent, with France emerging from the war strengthened and increasingly dominant in the latter part of the 17th century.

Treaty of Brest-Litovsk was a peace treaty signed on 3 March 1918 between the new Bolshevik government of Soviet Russia and the Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and Ottoman Empire), that ended Russia's participation in WWI. The treaty was signed at Brest-Litovsk after two months of negotiations. The treaty was forced on the Bolshevik government by the threat of further advances by German and Austrian forces. According to the treaty, Soviet Russia defaulted on all of Imperial Russia's commitments to the Triple Entente alliance.

In the treaty, Bolshevik Russia ceded the Baltic States to Germany; they were meant to become German vassal states under German princelings. Russia also ceded its province of Kars Oblast in the South Caucasus to the Ottoman Empire and recognized the independence of Ukraine. Furthermore, Russia agreed to pay six billion German gold marks in reparations. Congress Poland was not mentioned in the treaty, as Germans refused to recognize the existence of any Polish representatives, which in turn led to Polish protests. When Germans later complained that the Treaty of Versailles of 1919 was too harsh on them, the Allies (and historians favorable to the Allies) responded that it was more benign than Brest-Litovsk.

The treaty was effectively terminated in November 1918, when Germany surrendered to the Allies. However, in the meantime, it did provide some relief to the Bolsheviks, already fighting the Russian Civil War, by the renouncement of Russia's claims on Poland, Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Belarus, Ukraine and Lithuania.

Treaty of Bucharest was a peace treaty between Romania on one side and Central Powers on the other, following the stalemate reached after the campaign of 1916–17 and Romania's isolation after Russia's unilateral exit from World War I (*See* Treaty of Brest-Litovsk). It was signed at Buftea, near Bucharest, on 7 May 1918. Main terms of the treaty: 1) Romania had to return Southern Dobruja and to cede the southern part of Northern Dobruja to Bulgaria, while the rest of the province remained under the joint control of the Central Powers; 2) Romania had to give Austria-Hungary control of the passes of the Carpathian Mountains; 3) Romania had to lease its oil wells to Germany for 90 years; 4) the Central Powers recognized the Union of Bessarabia with Romania

The treaty put Romania in a unique situation compared to the other German occupied countries. It completely respected Romanian *de jure* independence, as it did not impose any form of vassalage or protectorate over Romania, and even though the country had to cede land, it still emerged bigger than before entering the war, thanks to the Union with Bessarabia. In 1919, Germany was forced in the Treaty of Versailles to renounce all the benefits provided by the Treaty of Bucharest in 1918. The territorial transfers to Austria-Hungary and Bulgaria were annulled by the treaties of Saint-Germain (1919), Neuilly (1919) and Trianon (1920), respectively.

Treaty of Lausanne was a peace treaty signed in Lausanne, Switzerland on 24 July 1923. It officially ended the state of war that had existed between Turkey and the allied British Empire, French Republic, Kingdom of Italy, Empire of Japan, Kingdom of Greece, Kingdom of Romania, and Serb-Croat-Slovene State since the onset of World War I. It was the result of a second attempt at peace after the failed Treaty of Sèvres, which was signed by all previous parties but later rejected by the Turkish national movement who fought against the previous terms and significant loss of territory. T.L. ended the conflict and defined the borders of the modern Turkish Republic. In the treaty, Turkey gave up all claims to the remainder of the Ottoman Empire and in return the Allies recognized Turkish sovereignty within its new borders. The treaty provided for the independence of the Republic of Turkey but also for the protection of the Greek Orthodox Christian minority in Turkey and the Muslim minority in Greece. The treaty delimited the boundaries of Greece, Bulgaria, and Turkey; formally ceded all Turkish claims on the Dodecanese Islands; Cyprus; Egypt and Sudan; Syria and Iraq; and (along with the Treaty of Ankara) settled the boundaries of the latter two nations.

Treaty of Rapallo was an agreement signed on 16 April, 1922 between Germany and Soviet Russia under which each renounced all territorial and financial claims against the other following the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk and World War I. The two governments also agreed to normalise their diplomatic relations and to “co-operate in a spirit of mutual goodwill in meeting the economic needs of both countries”. The treaty strengthened their economic and military ties. As the first agreement concluded by Germany as an independent agent since World War I, it angered the Western Allies. R.T. was a spinoff of the Genoa Conference with the participation of Germany and the Soviet Union, which had broken down when France demanded that the Soviets assume the prewar debt incurred by the tsarist regime and on immediate reparations by the Germans to the USSR. The German and Russian delegates quietly slipped away and met at Rapallo.

Treaty of Saint-Germain was signed by representatives of Austria on one side and the Allied Powers on the other at Saint-Germain-en-Laye, near Paris, on Sept. 10, 1919, and came into force on July 16, 1920.

The treaty officially registered the breakup of the Habsburg empire, recognizing the independence of Czechoslovakia, Poland, Hungary, and the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes (Yugoslavia) and ceding eastern Galicia, Trento, southern Tirol, Trieste, and Istria. Plebiscites eventually determined the disposition of southern Carinthia (which went to Austria) and the town of Sopron (which went to Hungary). The Covenant of the League of Nations was integrally included in the treaty, and the union of Austria with Germany was expressly forbidden

without the consent of the Council of the League. The military clauses limited Austria's long-service volunteer army to 30,000 men and broke up the Austro-Hungarian navy, distributing it among the Allies. Although Austria was made liable for reparations, no money was ever actually paid. The Austria created by the treaty was financially and militarily weak and therefore a chronic force of instability in Europe between the two World Wars.

Treaty of Sèvres (10 August 1920) was one of a series of treaties that the nations constituting the Central Powers signed subsequent to their defeat in World War I. It was signed on 10 August 1920, in an exhibition room at the Manufacture nationale de Sèvres porcelain factory in Sèvres, France. The Sèvres treaty marked the beginning of the partitioning of the Ottoman Empire, and its ultimate annihilation. The terms it stipulated included the renunciation of all non-Turkish territory that was part of the Ottoman Empire and their cession to the Allied administration. Notably, the ceding of Eastern Mediterranean land allowed the creation of, amongst others, the British Mandate of Palestine and the French Mandate of Syria. The treaty ultimately led to the Turkish War of Independence, following which Atatürk and Turkish nationalists accepted a new treaty, the 1923 Treaty of Lausanne, which effectively brought into being the modern-day republic of Turkey.

Treaty of Trianon was the peace agreement of 1920 to formally end WWI between most of the Allies of WWI and the Kingdom of Hungary, the latter being one of the successor states to Austria-Hungary. The treaty regulated the status of an independent Hungarian state and defined its borders. The principal beneficiaries of the treaty's territorial division were the Kingdom of Romania, the Czechoslovak Republic, and the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes (Yugoslavia). One of the main elements of the treaty was the doctrine of "self-determination of peoples" and it was an attempt to give the non-Hungarians their own national states. In addition, Hungary had to pay war reparations to its neighbours. The treaty was dictated by the Allies rather than negotiated and the Hungarians had no option but to accept its terms.

Treaty of Versailles was one of the peace treaties at the end of WWI signed on 28 June 1919, exactly five years after the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand. It ended the state of war between Germany and the Allied Powers. The other Central Powers on the German side of WWI were dealt with in separate treaties.

Of the many provisions in the treaty, one of the most important and controversial required "Germany [to] accept the responsibility of Germany and her allies for causing all the loss and damage" during the war (the other members of the Central Powers signed treaties containing similar articles). This article, Article 231, later became known as the War Guilt clause. The treaty forced Germany to disarm, make substantial territorial concessions, and pay reparations to certain countries that had formed the Entente powers. In 1921 the total cost of these reparations was assessed at 132 billion Marks (then \$31.4 billion or £6.6 billion, roughly equivalent to US \$442 billion or UK £284 billion in 2016). The problems that arose from the treaty would lead to the Locarno Treaties, which improved relations between Germany and the other European Powers, and the re-negotiation of the reparation system resulting in the Dawes Plan, the Young Plan, and the indefinite postponement of reparations at the Lausanne Conference of 1932.

Vienna Congress was a conference of ambassadors of European states chaired by Austrian statesman Klemens Wenzel von Metternich, and held in Vienna from September 1814 to June 1815. The objective of the Congress was to provide a long-term peace plan for Europe by settling critical issues arising from the French Revolutionary Wars and the Napoleonic Wars. The goal was not simply to restore old boundaries but to resize the main powers so they could balance each other off and remain at peace. France lost all its recent conquests, while Prussia, Austria and Russia made major territorial gains. Prussia added smaller German states in the west and 40% of the Kingdom of Saxony; Austria gained Venice and much of northern Italy. Russia gained parts of Poland. The new Kingdom of the Netherlands had been created just months before, and included formerly Austrian territory that in 1830 became Belgium.

The Congress was the first occasion in history where, on a continental scale, national representatives came together to formulate treaties, instead of relying mostly on messages between the several capitals. The Congress of Vienna settlement, despite later changes, formed the framework for European international politics until the outbreak of the WWI in 1914.

Washington Naval Conference (also called the Washington Arms Conference or the Washington Disarmament Conference) was a military conference called by U.S. President Warren G. Harding and held in Washington, D.C., from 12 November 1921 to 6 February 1922, conducted outside the auspice of the League of Nations. It was the first international conference held in the United States and the first arms control conference in history. It resulted in three major treaties: Four-Power Treaty, Five-Power Treaty (more commonly known as the Washington Naval Treaty), the Nine-Power Treaty, and a number of smaller agreements. These treaties preserved peace during the 1920s but are also credited with enabling the rise of the Japanese Empire as a naval power leading up to World War II.

The Four-Power Treaty was a treaty signed by the United States, Great Britain, France and Japan at the Washington Naval Conference on 13 December 1921. All parties agreed to maintain the status quo in the Pacific, by respecting the Pacific holdings of the other countries signing the agreement, not seeking further territorial expansion and mutual consultation with each other in the event of a dispute over territorial possessions. However, the main result of the Four-Power Treaty was the termination of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance of 1902.

The Five-Power Treaty (concluded on February 6, 1922) was a treaty among the major nations that had won WWI, which agreed to prevent an arms race by limiting naval construction. It was signed by the governments of the United Kingdom, the United States, Japan, France, and Italy. It limited the construction of battleships, battlecruisers and aircraft carriers by the signatories. The numbers of other categories of warships, including cruisers, destroyers and submarines, were not limited by the treaty, but those ships were limited to 10,000 tons displacement.

The Nine-Power Treaty was a 1922 treaty affirming the sovereignty and territorial integrity of China as per the Open Door Policy. This was after the Suzerainty system fell apart after the Western invasions of the Opium Wars, that outlawed the Chinese “Closed Door Policy” into China of the former Imperial Qing dynasty. The Nine-Power Treaty was signed on 6 February 1922 by all of the attendees to the Washington Naval Conference: the United States, Belgium, the British Empire, Republic of China, France, Italy, Imperial Japan, the Netherlands, and Portugal.

Weimar Republic is an unofficial designation for the German state between 1919 and 1933. The name derives from the city of Weimar, where its constitutional assembly first took place. The official name of the state was the German Reich, continuing the name from the pre-1918 German Empire. The republic was a semi-presidential representative democracy, and emerged in the aftermath of the German Revolution of 1918 – 19. A national assembly was convened in Weimar, where a new constitution for the German Reich was written, and adopted on 11 August 1919. In its fourteen years, the W. R. faced numerous problems, including hyperinflation, political extremists and contentious relationships with the victors of the WWI. The people of Germany blamed the W.R., not their wartime leaders, for the country's defeat and humiliation caused by the Treaty of Versailles. The W.R. successfully reformed the currency, and unified tax policies and the railway system. Germany eliminated most of the requirements of the Treaty of Versailles and never completely met its disarmament requirements, and eventually only paid a small portion of the war reparations by twice restructuring its debt through the Dawes Plan and the Young Plan. Under the Locarno Treaties, Germany accepted the western borders of the republic, but the Eastern border remained debatable for the Weimar German governments.

Hitler was sworn in as Chancellor on the morning of 30 January 1933. The same year the Enabling Act, a Weimar Constitution amendment, was adopted that gave the German Cabinet – in effect, Chancellor Adolf Hitler – the power to enact laws without the involvement of the Reichstag. The Enabling Act is widely considered to mark the end of the W. R. and the beginning Nazi Germany.

World War I was a global war originating in Europe that began on 28 July 1914 and lasted until 11 November 1918. The war drew in all the world's economic great powers, assembled in two opposing alliances: the Allies (based on the Triple Entente of the United Kingdom/British Empire, France and the Russian Empire) versus the Central Powers of Germany and Austria-Hungary. Although Italy was a member of the Triple Alliance alongside Germany and Austria-Hungary, it did not join the Central Powers, as Austria-Hungary had taken the offensive, against the terms of the alliance. These alliances were reorganised and expanded as more nations entered the war: Italy, Japan and the United States joined the Allies, while the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria joined the Central Powers.

The trigger for the war was the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria, heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, by Yugoslav nationalist Gavrilo Princip in Sarajevo on 28 June 1914. This set off a diplomatic crisis when Austria-Hungary delivered an ultimatum to the Kingdom of Serbia, and entangled international alliances formed over the previous decades were invoked. Within weeks, the major powers were at war and the conflict soon spread around the world. The war led to the fall of four great imperial dynasties (in Germany, Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey), resulted in the Bolshevik Revolution in Russia, and, in its destabilization of European society, laid the groundwork for World War II.

World War II was a global war that lasted from 1939 to 1945, although related conflicts began earlier. It involved the vast majority of the world's nations – including all of the great powers – eventually forming two opposing military alliances: the Allies and the Axis. It was the most widespread war in history, and directly involved more than 100 million people from over 30 countries.

The Empire of Japan aimed to dominate Asia and the Pacific and was already at war with the Republic of China in 1937, but the world war is generally said to have begun on 1 September 1939 with the invasion of Poland by Germany and subsequent declarations of war on Germany by France and the United Kingdom. From late 1939 to early 1941, in a series of campaigns and treaties, Germany conquered or controlled much of continental Europe, and formed the Axis alliance with Italy and Japan. Under the Molotov–Ribbentrop Pact of August 1939, Germany and the Soviet Union partitioned and annexed territories of their European neighbours, Poland, Finland, Romania and the Baltic states. The war continued primarily between the European Axis powers and the coalition of the United Kingdom and the British Commonwealth, with campaigns including the North Africa and East Africa campaigns, the aerial Battle of Britain, the Blitz bombing campaign, the Balkan Campaign as well as the long-running Battle of the Atlantic. In June 1941, the European Axis powers launched an invasion of the Soviet Union, opening the largest land theatre of war in history, which trapped the major part of the Axis' military forces into a war of attrition. In December 1941, Japan attacked the United States and European territories in the Pacific Ocean, and quickly conquered much of the Western Pacific.

The war in Europe concluded with an invasion of Germany by the Western Allies and the Soviet Union, culminating in the capture of Berlin by Soviet and Polish troops and the subsequent German unconditional surrender on 8 May 1945. Following the Potsdam Declaration by the Allies on 26 July 1945 and the refusal of Japan to surrender under its terms, the United States dropped atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki on 6 August and 9 August respectively. With an invasion of the Japanese archipelago imminent, the possibility of additional atomic bombings, and the Soviet Union's declaration of war on Japan and invasion of Manchuria, Japan surrendered on 15 August 1945. Thus ended the war in Asia, cementing the total victory of the Allies.

Yalta Conference (also called the Crimea Conference and codenamed the Argonaut Conference) held on February 4–11, 1945, was the WWII meeting of the heads of government of the United States, the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union, represented by President Franklin D. Roosevelt, Prime Minister Winston Churchill and Premier Joseph Stalin, respectively, for the

purpose of discussing Europe's post-war reorganization. The conference convened in the Livadia Palace near Yalta in Crimea. The meeting was intended mainly to discuss the re-establishment of the nations of war-torn Europe. Within a few years, with the Cold War dividing the continent, Yalta became a subject of intense controversy.

Key points of the meeting are as follows: 1. Agreement to the priority of the unconditional surrender of Nazi Germany. After the war, Germany and Berlin would be split into four occupied zones. 2. Stalin agreed that France would have a fourth occupation zone in Germany, but it would have to be formed out of the American and British zones. 3. Germany would undergo demilitarization and denazification. 4. German reparations were partly to be in the form of forced labour. 5. Creation of a reparation council which would be located in the Soviet Union. 6. The status of Poland was discussed. It was agreed to reorganize the communist Provisional Government of the Republic of Poland that had been installed by the Soviet Union. 7. The Polish eastern border would follow the Curzon Line, and Poland would receive territorial compensation in the West from Germany. 8. Citizens of the Soviet Union and of Yugoslavia were to be handed over to their respective countries, regardless of their consent. 9. Roosevelt obtained a commitment by Stalin to participate in the U.N. Stalin requested that all of the 16 Soviet Socialist Republics would be granted U.N. membership. 10. Stalin agreed to enter the fight against the Empire of Japan in two or three months after Germany has surrendered and the war in Europe is terminated, and that as a result, the Soviets would take possession of Southern Sakhalin and the Kuril Islands, the port of Darien would be internationalized, and the Soviet lease of Port Arthur would be restored, among other concessions. 11. Nazi war criminals were to be hunted down and brought to justice.

Young Plan was a program for settling German reparations debts after WWI written in 1929 and formally adopted in 1930. It was presented by the committee headed (1929–30) by American industrialist Owen D. Young who had been one of representatives involved in previous war reparations restructuring arrangement - Dawes Plan of 1924. The Inter-Allied Reparations Commission established the German reparation sum at a theoretical total of 132 billion, but a practical total of 50 billion gold marks. After the Dawes Plan was put into operation in 1924, it became apparent that Germany would not willingly meet the annual payments over an indefinite period of time. The Young Plan reduced further payments by about 20 percent. Although the theoretical total was 112 billion Gold Marks, equivalent to US \$8 billion in 1929 (US\$ 110 billion in 2014) over a period of 59 years, which would end in 1988, few expected the plan to last for much more than a decade. In addition, the Young Plan divided the annual payment, set at two billion Gold Marks, US \$473 million, into two components: one unconditional part, equal to one third of the sum, and a postponable part, equal to the remaining two-thirds, which would incur interest and be financed by a consortium of American investment banks.

By stabilizing the currency, Y.P. (as well as the Dawes Plan) brought increased foreign investments and loans to the German market. But, it made the German economy dependent on foreign markets and economies. As the U.S. economy developed problems under the Great Depression, Germany involved economically with it also suffered.

НАВЧАЛЬНО-МЕТОДИЧНЕ ВИДАННЯ

КАРПЧУК НАТАЛІЯ ПЕТРІВНА

ІСТОРІЯ МІЖНАРОДНИХ ВІДНОСИН (16-20 століття)

Методичні рекомендації для студентів галузі знань 29 «міжнародні відносини», спеціальності 055 «міжнародні відносини, суспільні комунікації та регіональні студії», програми «міжнародні відносини»

В авторській редакції