

The Rise of Totalitarian Regimes

The End of the Great War

When, in 1914, Great Britain declared war on Germany and Austria, the British foreign minister Grey remarked, “The lamps are going out all over Europe; we shall never see them lit again in our life time.” (Quoted in Lowe, *Mastering Modern British History*, Macmillan, 1988, p. 441; see Plüer, *Victorian Britain*.) Five years later, in 1919, prospects would certainly have seemed even bleaker to Europeans: although the war had come to an end and oppressive regimes had been toppled, the situation was still disastrous in many respects: Europe counted 13 million dead and was suffering a severe food crisis, economies had been ruined in the war effort, industrial production had lost ground, and war loans had to be repaid. Trade had not yet returned to its pre-war international scale and was only starting up again on a limited national level. Dismissed soldiers returning from the fronts found their jobs gone and their return to civil life very difficult; some of the war veterans were even severely maimed and traumatized.

Europe had also changed politically: three great empires had collapsed – Tsarist Russia, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and the Second Reich in Germany – and their monarchs had been swept away by revolutions. In Russia, the Bolsheviks with their “dictatorship of the proletariat,” expropriations, and civil war were still struggling to consolidate their power (see Marx, *The Russian Revolution*), but conditions in Russia were confusing enough to make the middle and upper classes in other countries very wary of revolutionary movements in their own states. The three empires were forced to abandon control over a considerable part of their territory on the basis of Wilson’s 14 points*. New national states had emerged, such as Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, and Yugoslavia. The independence of these young democracies was still very fragile, and their economies were underdeveloped.

By the end of 1919, the new parliamentary governments in many European countries had not yet been able to convince their citizens that their problems would be taken care of effectively and would be solved in a reasonable period of time.

The Lure of Dictatorships

In 1919, 26 of 28 European countries were democratic states, i. e. a parliament had been elected, political parties existed, and individual rights were recognized. Only Bolshevik Russia and Hungary did not correspond to the rule. By 1938, 16 of these countries had given in to dictatorships where opposition was suppressed, personal liberties were restricted, and citizens were made to obey leaders who possessed absolute power. After two years of war, in 1941, only five democracies were left (the UK, Ireland, Sweden, Finland, and Switzerland); all the others had been destroyed or occupied by non-democratic powers.

Communism had gone even further: it required absolute belief in its ideology, complete obedience to its leader and his party, and absolute control of citizens’ private lives and thoughts: it was a “totalitarian” system. In the years after the Great War, Communism seemed to have gained power in other countries as well; yet, by 1920, revolutions of the far left had collapsed in Bavaria, Hungary, Austria,

and northern Italy. The fear of Communism, however, remained a staple item in far right propaganda. These extreme movements of the right are generally called “fascist” after their prototype in Italy.

Fascism in Italy

Italy after World War I and Mussolini’s Fascist Party

Although Italy had been united in 1861 in a constitutional monarchy, the gap between the industrialized north and the agricultural south had widened. Along with its economic problems, a crisis of the parliamentary system arose: government depended on a difficult consensus between different political groups which was usually reached by the distribution of favours and offices; cabinets succeeded each other very quickly without long-lasting political results.

When Italy entered the war on the side of the Allies, its economy suffered even more from the war efforts. In 1919, Italy found itself with a huge budget deficit, quickly rising inflation rates, and high unemployment caused also by returning soldiers and reduced emigration possibilities. So the scene was set for serious social conflicts that could not be contained by “weak” governments which the political nationalist right blamed for a loss of territory. Italy had entered the war on the side of the Allies in order to gain its “Italia irredenta”* from the Habsburg empire. In the peace treaty Trieste, part of the Veneto, and South Tirol had been conceded to Italy, but its claim on Istria and Dalmatia was rejected. With Socialist and communist groups organizing strikes and riots, right-wing nationalist groups conjured up the idea of a “Red Menace” and a “betrayed Italy” - street fights and political chaos characterized public life in 1920/21.

In this turmoil, Benito Mussolini (1883–1945), an ex-Socialist elementary school teacher and newspaper director, gained widespread support by organizing local right-wing activities in the first “fascio” in Milan. “Fascio” in Italian means ‘small group,’ but also ‘a bundle of rods’ like the “fasces” with a protruding axe-head carried by magistrates in ancient Rome. This symbolised Roman greatness and the idea of strength through unity. Mussolini’s movement did not have a clear-cut programme, but it believed in violent action. By 1921, it had gathered supporters all over Italy and became the Partito Nazionale Fascista (PNF), gaining 35 seats in the Italian parliament. At the same time, its paramilitary groups, the Blackshirts, kept on beating up and bullying left-wing supporters and frightening citizens. The government was too weak – and often not willing – to offer any resistance; on the contrary, it tacitly let them gain control of country districts and city councils in return for their help in suppressing socialist and communist strikes and re-establishing public order.

To many Italians, the Fascist movement seemed a possible third way between a discredited government and Parliament and a socialist revolution: war veterans joined Fascism because it stressed patriotism, action instead of talking, and battle instead of quiet misery: the army and its police, the carabinieri, thought Fascism would restore order and discipline; the Catholic Church saw Mussolini as a bulwark against Socialism and Communism, and even the royal family and their aristocratic relatives were sympathetic towards fascist principles. The most important support in terms of voters, though, came from the lower middle class, people who suffered most from the economic crisis. Most decisive for the financial backing of the Fascist party were the donations which it received from the large landowners and big industries – the Fascist programme of abolishing unions and fighting the “Red Menace” coincided perfectly with their own interests.

Mussolini's Rise to Power

Mussolini was elected to the Chamber of Deputies in 1921, opposing a Liberal Party which still retained power even with a very weak government. In 1922, strike waves organized by the trade unions and the Socialist Party were met by violent counterattacks by the Fascist Blackshirts: the country seemed close to civil war. On October 26th, 1922, Mussolini's Fascist Party PNF threatened to send its contingents on a "March on Rome" to seize power. King Victor Emmanuel III finally gave in and requested Mussolini to form his own government! Mussolini was appointed Prime Minister on October 28th in a coalition of Fascists, Nationalists, Catholics, and right-wing Liberals.

Mussolini's Aims

From the beginning, Mussolini had made it clear that he despised parliamentary democracy as much as Communism. His motto – "Everything within the state, nothing against the state, nothing outside the state" – summarizes his goals. A strong nation was to be led by a well-disciplined party elite and its leader, the "Duce,"* Mussolini. The influence of parliament would gradually be abolished, and all opposition to the government line was to be destroyed. Labour and capital would no longer be allowed to follow their separate interests; they would have to work together under the direction of the state. The Italian people would be made proud of their glorious past and led into an equally glorious future which would be guaranteed by a strong state and an expansionist foreign policy aiming at a new Italian Empire. His programme presented a mixture of conservative and revolutionary elements: there were no attacks on the monarchy or on the Catholic church and no threat to property or class distinctions; on the other hand, the idea of joint syndicates* of workers and managers and the acceptance of industrialization, modern technology, and modern ideas in art, architecture, and literature gave Fascism a very innovative face.

Mussolini's Dictatorship 1922–1943

In October 1922, Mussolini's cabinet had Fascist and ten non-Fascist ministers; his party held only 7% of the seats in the Chamber of Deputies. In the 1924 elections, after the introduction of a new electoral law, the Fascists won 64% of the total votes, making it easy to get rid of the remaining opposition parties which were banned in 1926. In 1925-26, more than 10,000 antifascists were arrested. A secret police was founded with approximately 5,000 agents who infiltrated most aspects of life in Italy.

The Corporate State

Mussolini had promised to bring economic prosperity to Italy and to abolish conflicts between workers and employers. Syndicates or corporations* were founded for each activity in which workers' representatives, employers, and party members worked together to fix wages, prices, and profits. Strikes were forbidden and disputes were to be solved by the Labour Courts within the corporations. The original idea of their independence never really worked; benefits from Mussolini's economic policy went to a small minority of industrialists, landowners, and Fascist bureaucrats.

Means of Control

To win the support of the Catholics, Mussolini knew that it was important to heal the dispute between the Pope and the Italian state which had been festering ever since Rome had become the capital of the

united Kingdom of Italy after the abolition of the State of the Church. The Lateran* Treaty of 1929 conceded papal sovereignty over the Vatican City, while the Pope recognized the Kingdom of Italy and its claim to the city of Rome. A Concordat defined Catholicism as the national religion and allowed religious education to be taught at schools.

The Church appreciated Mussolini's fight against Communism, but it disapproved of Fascist education principles. Although primary school attendance was made obligatory – a big step in agrarian Italy – new subjects like manual work and military training were introduced. The focus was put on technology and science and on teaching racial differences (after Mussolini had given in to German pressure and racial laws were introduced in 1938). Children and teenagers were also requested to participate in youth groups. Songs, symbols, and slogans like “credere – obbedire – combattere” (“believe - obey – fight”) were used to instil Fascist ideas. There were “Fascist Saturdays” and summer camps for the children of the poor.

Propaganda also played an important role: Fascist holidays were celebrated with rallies, sports events, and marching parades. Movie theatres all over Italy presented Fascist achievements. Radio enabled the Party to reach out to families all over the nation. In this way, Italians learnt about the great public works the regime had started to undertake: huge dams to produce hydroelectricity were built, roads and railways were introduced in all Italian regions, and unhealthy swamp areas were drained and turned into arable land which was distributed amongst farmers. Complete new towns announced modern times and Fascist efficiency and, at the same time, offered jobs. Of course Italians were not told about low wages, long working hours, rising food prices, a lack of jobs for women, and continuing poor living conditions in the south of Italy.

One particular Fascist achievement, though is still remembered in southern Italy: a prefect was appointed to eliminate the Mafia which threatened and undermined Mussolini's totalitarian rule – Cesare Mori. He used very harsh but successful methods and had great numbers of Mafiosi arrested, but was stopped in his enquiries when he found evidence of collusion between the Mafia, state, and Fascist party. The Mafia survived underground and re-emerged after the landing of the Americans in Sicily and the fall of fascism.

Although Fascist Italy was not as tightly run and controlled as Soviet Russia or Nazi Germany, Mussolini – by ways that were revolutionary at the time – managed to establish a totalitarian regime which remained popular with its citizens, at least in its earlier period, and maintained power for 20 years. It became a model for many of the dictatorships which established themselves in the 1920s and 1930s.

Nazism in Germany

Germany after World War I and Hitler's Rise

Germany's situation at the end of World War I (see also Karch, Making Peace) was possibly even worse than Italy's. Germany had lost the war, had been made solely responsible for its outbreak, and consequently lost nearly one tenth of its territory. Enormously high war reparations had grave effects on the economy and increased inflation. As in Italy there were communist uprisings, but also attempted coups from the right. Extremist paramilitary groups engaged in street fights and encouraged political murders, creating a climate of fear and violence. In 1923, the supporters of the new republic were

not yet very numerous. Its successes were mainly apparent in foreign policy; only towards the end of the year did German citizens begin to see some light at the end of the tunnel with the stabilization of the currency, the defeat of separatist movements, and the easing of reparation payments (see Keil, *Democracy on the Defence: Germany after World War I*).

In this climate of turmoil, a small party, the National Socialist German Workers' Party (NSDAP), with its chairman Adolf Hitler started to gain supporters. Hitler had grown up in Austria, left school prematurely, and worked at odd jobs in Vienna where his political thought became influenced by German nationalism, contempt for a parliamentary system, and radical anti-Semitism*. During World War I, he served as a volunteer in the German army; after his return to Munich, he joined the small party which was to become the NSDAP, helping to devise its programme consisting of nationalistic, socialistic, and racist principles. As its chairman, he formed the Sturmabteilung (SA), a paramilitary organization, in order to intimidate opponents and to offer its supporters the chance for "action." He admired Mussolini's "March on Rome," and in 1923, Germany seemed ripe for a similar enterprise. Hitler and his storm troopers interrupted a meeting of the Bavarian government with state officials, took the Commissioner, Army Commander, and Head of the Police prisoners and forced them to cooperate with his revolutionary government. When on the next day his followers joined up to start the "March on Berlin," they found themselves blocked by the Munich police who, in the meantime, had received orders from Berlin to crush the coup. 21 people were killed in the ensuing fight. Hitler was arrested and sentenced to five years imprisonment. He only served eight months in which he wrote his programmatic book 'Mein Kampf.'

The "March on Berlin" had obviously not worked for several reasons (see also: Keil, *Democracy on the Defence: Germany after World War I*). When analysing his mistakes, Hitler understood that he had to change tactics and adopt a dual policy: his party had to seek legality in reaching for power, at the same time keeping its radicalism as a mass movement. The party was reorganized on local, regional, and national levels in a strict hierarchy with Hitler as the Führer at the top. Its ideas were to be drummed into people in mass assemblies, youth rallies, and party conventions: the Germans were the master race; they needed to gain more living space by combat and conquest; all of Germany's sufferings were caused by the Jewish race, therefore the Jews had to be eliminated. In the national elections in May 1924, the NSDAP gained 32 seats, but by May 1928 the NSDAP could barely manage to keep twelve of them. Two years later, in September 1930, it held 107 seats and was the second largest party in the Reichstag, only to reach a peak of 230 seats in the July 1932 elections. What happened after 1928?

During its economic boom (see Roensberg, *The USA after World War I*), the USA had given loans to European industries, thus enabling them to produce goods for the domestic and foreign markets and to create new jobs. Towards the end of the 1920s, the U.S. boom resulted in overproduction of consumer goods and agricultural products; the lack of demand caused factories to close down. Shareholders tried to sell their shares, causing the big Wall Street Crash* in October 1929. American banks recalled their loans in Germany, thus starting a spiral movement of bank crashes, bankrupt stores and factories, and with it a sharp rise in unemployment from 1.3 million in 1929 to 6 million in 1933. The German state received less tax revenue and introduced harsh cuts on expenditure which in their turn increased unemployment rates. The government found it increasingly difficult to find majorities for its

decisions: from 1930 on it made use of the emergency powers conceded to the President of the Republic by the Weimar constitution, it ruled by decrees*, thus preparing the way for an authoritarian government.

The Depression destabilized the whole social structure: it ruined the middle class, impoverished the lower middle class and workers, and concentrated financial power with the great industrialists. Very many Germans were looking for employment and a stable government.

This situation was Hitler's chance: it was not difficult to promise a better future to desperate people. His candidature for President in 1932 gave him the opportunity to use the most modern means for a professional election campaign: in numerous mass rallies, Hitler would arrive by automobile or even by plane and address his audiences in rousing (and well-studied) ways. Millions of pamphlets were distributed, Hitler's speeches were filmed and recorded, and posters with his effigy and the incredibly popular slogan "Freedom and Bread" could be seen all over Germany. At the same time, Hitler's SA troopers counted 400,000 members, a real army. They engaged in street fights with other political combat groups, creating a climate of fear and chaos. The first anti-Jewish window-smashing occurred in October 1930. It could count on widespread anti-Semitism.

Although the NSDAP had become the strongest party in the Reichstag, President Hindenburg still rejected Hitler as candidate for the chancellorship; but when other authoritarian governments failed and bankers and industrialists petitioned Hindenburg to appoint Hitler as chancellor, the President finally offered Hitler to become chancellor in a coalition cabinet with three Nazi cabinet ministers. He was convinced that in this way the NSDAP could be kept in check! On January 30, 1933, Hitler's government was sworn in.

Establishing a Totalitarian State

So far you will have noticed many similarities between Mussolini's and Hitler's way of "seizing power." These similarities can also be found in their steps of turning a democracy into a totalitarian regime: abolishment of individual basic rights, imprisonment of political opponents, and a law which enabled the chancellor to pass laws without the consent of parliament. The NSDAP was declared the one and only state party with the Führer as its head. In summer 1934, Hitler combined three offices in his person: after Hindenburg's death he was President (and head of the armed forces), chancellor (head of government without parliamentary control), and Führer (head of the party hierarchy and its military organizations).

As in Fascism, the Nazi dictatorship based its total grip of the people on coercion and terror on the one hand, and on control of their minds on the other. Within the first weeks of power, concentration camps were opened and a secret police hunted down opponents to be tried by special courts. In 1934, a cleansing of the SA resulted in the murder of its leaders by the SS; law was dictated by Hitler and his party. The Goebbels* Ministry of Propaganda controlled all sectors of public life – the press, film, radio, theatre, literature, music, and fine arts. Non-Aryans* and opponents of the regime were not admitted in these sectors.

Like Mussolini, Hitler was aware that the Church could be a serious rival for people's loyalty. The 1933 concordat with the Vatican assured non-interference of the Catholic Church in active politics; the Protestants were centralized under a Reich bishop. Different from Italy, the growing anti-Semitism and

persecution of priests and ministers, however, caused many Christians to distance themselves from the regime.

The most obvious channel, though, to indoctrinate the German people was education. Teachers had to conform to Nazi ideology, and subjects like history, literature, and science were to convey the Nazis' anti-Semitic, nationalist, and militant view of the world. Membership in the NS youth organizations was not yet obligatory, but it was required for different careers. There were separate "clubs" for boys and for girls. Both stressed health and outdoor activities, but boys were given a pre-military training, whereas girls were prepared for motherhood, the home, and family.

Hitler's Popularity

Although people were aware of the dictatorial character of the Nazi regime, most Germans appreciated the achievements of the Nazis in their first six years of power: order had returned to the cities, and unemployment fell at an incredibly swift rate since Hitler initiated a policy of public work projects, e.g. the building of highways, a mandatory national workers' service (Reichsarbeitsdienst), and later rearmament. Workers were gathered into the German Workers' Front; the absence of strikes helped the big industries to make more profit. In accordance with the Nazi view of a woman's role, women were encouraged to stay at home and look after their families. Moreover, Hitler's steps in foreign policy, which successfully revised the terms of the Versailles Treaty (see Rose, *Rising Aggression*), restored a feeling of justice and self-respect. Germans were also attracted by the celebration of such successes, special holidays, and events, e. g. the Berlin Olympic Games in 1936 or the big Party Conference at Nuremberg in 1938, well-staged mass rallies which gave them the feeling of belonging to a greater community and of being important for the national whole.

This combination of economic improvement, successful foreign policy, strong leadership, and shared ideology on the one hand, and a system of lawlessness and organized terror on the other made it very difficult for people to resist the Nazi regime.

Nazi Anti-Semitism

There was one element in Hitler's ideology which was quite singular and made his dictatorship different from all the other totalitarian and authoritarian regimes: his belief in the German master race and in its right and duty to subdue and eliminate non-Aryan populations. Anti-Semitic prejudice was not a new phenomenon, but never had it been taken to such terrible length as in the persecutions that led to the Holocaust. The last radical stage of the persecution of Jews (1938–1945), beginning with the confiscation of Jewish property, segregation by special passports and the yellow star of David, the exclusion from all public places, and finally deportation, could only be carried to its horrible end of mass extermination because of the war which Hitler had been preparing from the first years of his coming to power, the war which also destroyed the Fascist and Nazi regimes and killed their leaders.

Authoritarian Regimes in Europe

Fascism certainly provided a model for some of the dictatorships in Europe, and so did the rising Nazi movement. Many countries suffered from weak parliamentary governments and grave economic problems, but still conditions were different in each of them and so were their attempts at stabilizing their governments. Some patterns emerge nevertheless as the three following cases may show.

In economically weak **Spain**, a military putsch in 1923 established a Fascist regime within the monarchy, but with the oncoming world crisis it did not manage to improve economic conditions. In 1930, the King abdicated and a left-wing republic was established. The conflicts between left and right escalated into a very bloody civil war (1936–39) with volunteers and troops from other states fighting on both sides. Mussolini and Hitler saw their chance of trying out new weapons and tactics, and finally the Nationalist side under General Franco, which they had supported, won. Franco established a dictatorship that aimed at his Falange* movement keeping traditional forces in balance, i.e. the army, Church, monarchists, industrialists, and bankers.

The three Baltic states, **Lithuania**, **Latvia** and **Estonia**, found themselves in a completely different situation. As ex-provinces of Tsarist Russia, they had not gained independence until 1918, and therefore had only little experience in democratic self-government. They all started out with liberal constitutions, but their efforts were hampered by imperfections in their institutions and serious economic problems. At the same time, the governments had to fight Fascist movements in their countries. Lithuania was the first to fall: with the help of the army, Antanas Smetona established an authoritarian regime in 1926. After the Great Depression, Latvia and Estonia followed in 1934: dictatorships were set up by Karlis Ulmanis in Latvia and Konstantin Päts in Estonia. They were relatively mild regimes which still left room for private enterprise and personal freedom. The three dictators had participated in their countries' fight for independence and were therefore supported by their citizens in their efforts towards national revival.

Yugoslavia, formerly the 'Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes,' reveals its problems in its title: it was a multiethnic state which emerged from the fall of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Especially the Orthodox Serbs and the Catholic Croats had a long tradition of mutual hate and tendencies of national separatism. In 1928, King Alexander tried to control the recurring crises by establishing a 'royal dictatorship.' The new name "Yugoslavia" was meant to stress that all groups were Southern Slavs and belonged to one nation. With the outbreak of the war, Yugoslavia attracted the greed of its neighbours: its eastern parts went to Albania, Bulgaria, and Hungary; Istria and Dalmatia became Italian territory; Slovenia was partitioned between Germany and Italy; Serbia was put under German administration, and Croatia became a pro-Nazi puppet regime* with a very fierce nationalistic Catholic dictatorship in which Serbs, Jews, and Roma were deported to concentration camps and killed.

Very different prerequisites, very different manifestations – and still these dictatorships are characterised by a number of common traits. In all of them, political parties were restricted and presidential powers strengthened. For stability, dictators depended on an efficient army. The regimes limited civil liberties, and the rule of law was suspended in order to persecute opponents and put them in prisons or labour camps. Struggling to overcome economic difficulties, all these regimes attempted autarchy* and tried agrarian reforms, none of them with enduring success.

Most of these dictatorships allowed a certain range of pluralism* – none of them practised a personality cult around their leaders as Stalinism, Fascism, and Nazism did. Probably the most important distinction between authoritarian and totalitarian regimes must be seen in their lack of an ideological basis: they did not attempt to force their people towards a future which was to change mankind, but most adhered to traditional values and past greatness.

Most of these regimes collapsed at the end of World War II. The landing of the Allies in Sicily led to Mussolini's dismissal and, in 1945, to his being shot by partisans. Hitler committed suicide when the Russian army was closing in on Berlin. [The Baltic dictatorships were crushed during the Soviet and German occupation in 1940/41.] Spain, which had not been involved in the war, was ruled by Franco until his death in 1975.

Totalitarian States Today

Totalitarian/authoritarian regimes have outlived themselves in Europe; the post-war era was shaped by the will to prevent new chances for these regimes. The ensuing Cold War was also seen as a battle between western democracies and totalitarian communist states. When those regimes started to collapse in the second half of the 1980s, the end of an era seemed to have arrived. Twenty years later, in our times, we find that throughout the world totalitarian claims still work on people: communist regimes have survived in China, Vietnam, North Korea, and Cuba; Islamic fundamentalists use totalitarian methods to govern their countries, e. g. in Iran and Libya. In several European states, extreme right-wing parties have established themselves and have gained considerable numbers of votes in democratic elections. Some experts retain that economic difficulties, lack of interest and trust in democratic institutions, and the wish for strong charismatic leadership might eventually lead to a new rise of totalitarian regimes in the future.

Susanne Stammnitz Dellacroce

Glossary

<i>anti-Semitism</i>	hatred of Jewish people	Antisemitismus
<i>autarchy</i>	a policy in which a country does not want or need goods from any other country	Autarkie, Selbstgenügsamkeit
<i>duce</i>	Italian: leader	der Duce
<i>corporation</i>	a group of organizations that form a single group	eine Körperschaft
<i>decree</i>	an official order, usually made without parliamentary consent	Erlass
<i>Falange</i>	“phalanx formation,” i. e. a group of people standing or moving forward closely together	die Falange-Bewegung
<i>Goebbels</i>	Joseph Goebbels (1897–1 May 1945), NS Reich Minister of Propaganda 1933-1945, a fervent Nazi and anti-Semite	
<i>Great Depression</i>	The grave economic crisis in the USA which started in 1929 and continued into the 1930s	die Wirtschaftskrise der USA in den 30er Jahren
<i>Italia Irredenta</i>	territories which were not included in the Kingdom of Italy, but were inhabited by an Italian indigenous population (like Trentino and Trieste); also multilingual areas like South Tirol, Istria, Dalmatia, Corsica, Nice, etc.	das “unerlöste” Italien
<i>Lateran</i>	the official ecclesiastical seat of the Pope	der Lateran
<i>non-Aryans</i>	primarily Jews and Roma	Nichtarier
<i>pluralism</i>	a diversity of views and political beliefs	Pluralismus, Vielfalt
<i>puppet regime</i>	a regime controlled by a more powerful country	eine Marionettenregierung
<i>syndicate</i>	a group of companies or people who join together in order to achieve a particular aim	Vereinigung, Verband
<i>Wall Street Crash</i>	a devastating stock market crash in October 1929 which was the beginning of a long economic crisis in the USA	der amerikanische Börsenkrach von 1929
<i>Wilson's 14 points</i>	In a speech in January 1918, the American President Woodrow Wilson (1913–21) outlined	die Wilsonschen 14 Punkte

	<p>14 points which were intended to be the basis for peace terms. Self-determination and independence were to be allowed for all the peoples in Austria-Hungary and the old Turkish Empire. Also, an independent Poland was to be created, and Russia was to be left to “the independent determination of her own political development and national policy.”</p>	
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