

DOWNLOAD PDF ECONOMIC DEPRESSION AND THE EFFECT OF THE SPANISH DICTATORSHIP DURING THE 1920S

Chapter 1 : How did the Great Depression help lead to the rise of dictators

One significant effect of the Great Depression in Europe was A) huge unemployment rates in all nations but Great Britain. B) the rise of authoritarian movements in many areas of Europe.

Bring fact-checked results to the top of your browser search. Popular culture The indifference to politics and to the larger social concerns of the s was reflected as well in the popular culture of the decade. In contrast to the prosperity of the Roaring Twenties, the s emphasized simplicity and thrift. Although styles tended to reflect the glamour of contemporary movies, clothes themselves were mended before being replaced, and the invention of synthetic fibres led to the use of washable, practical, easy-care fabrics. Many who could not afford books or periodicals spent time reading in libraries. Inexpensive amusements included backyard games, puzzles, card games, and board games such as Monopoly , which was introduced in Even the national pastime, baseball , changed profoundly during the Great Depression. And with the end of Prohibition in , nightclubs became legitimate places not only to consume liquor but to socialize, dance, enjoy the entertainment, and be seen wearing the latest fashions. Because radio and film reached many more people than novels or plays, some intellectuals believed that the mass media might be the most effective weapon for radicalizing Americans. Yet, predictably, the radio networks and the Hollywood studios, as commercial enterprises, were more interested in entertaining than in indoctrinating the masses. A edition of the board game Monopoly. It became a popular amusement during the Great Depression. Although Hollywood was filled with people sympathetic to the political leftâ€”people who frequently contributed money to the labour movement or the Spanish Republicans or who were indispensable in organizing the Screen Actors, Writers, and Directors guildsâ€”little of this political activism left an imprint on the screen. The most memorable films of the decade particularly those made at Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer , Paramount , and Twentieth Century-Fox were musicals , screwball comedies, and romances. Only Warner Brothers specialized in movies, usually gangster sagas, about the violence and poverty of slum life, a life the embattled hoodlum protagonists always yearned to escape. The fast-talking guys and dames of s moviesâ€”like the contemporaneous music and lyrics of George Gershwin and Ira Gershwin , Cole Porter , Irving Berlin , and Richard Rodgers and Lorenz Hart â€”were the product of a culture both urban and urbane; the movies and the music depended on clever allusions and witty dialogue , written or composed mostly by sophisticated Manhattanites. Nor was it possible to envision the gangsters, as played by Edward G. Robinson or James Cagney , asking passing strangers if they could spare a dime. The characters they played all lived in a world of posh furniture and polished floors, of well-cut suits and gowns, of elegant nightclubs filled with cigarette smoke and champagne and piano music, a world far removed from the one movie audiences inhabited. Some of the music of the s tried to assuage the social suffering. By mid-decade the Benny Goodman Orchestra had ushered in the swing era, popularizing a style of big band jazz that had been pioneered a decade earlier by African American ensembles led by Fletcher Henderson and Duke Ellington. Dance-oriented and relentlessly upbeat, swing was not a palliative for hopelessness; it was tonic for recovery. Benny Goodman left and members of his band, c. No folk singer-songwriter, however, is more inextricably linked to the music of hardship and protest than Woody Guthrie. An Oklahoman, he took to the road at the height of the Dust Bowl era, frequenting hobo and migrant camps on his way to California , where he first popularized his songs about the plight of Dust Bowl refugees. In Hollywood, too, some of the leading directors of the s, such as Capra in Mr. Deeds Goes to Town and Mr. Smith Goes to Washington or John Ford in his movie version of The Grapes of Wrath , addressed the corruption of corporate and political power in modern America or the wretched conditions in which migrant farmers lived. Neither sentimental nor propagandistic, Citizen Kane transcended the filmmaking conventions and the preconceptions of the s and hinted at a more ironic age, with fewer certitudes, that would follow World War II. Portrayals of hope Americans in , however, were not yet ready for the cool detachment of Citizen Kane. After 10 years of hard times, when the Depression felt like a natural as well as economic disaster made

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worse by real environmental catastrophes such as floods and dust storms , what people wanted from their government and their popular culture was comfort. By the late s all but a few Americans were longing not for revolution but for recovery, not for uncertainty but for stability, not for more social conflict but for a sense of national unity. These essentially conservative impulses dominated the closing years of the Great Depression, though they had been present all along. Roosevelt recognized the craving for solace in the midst of chaos by clothing his reforms in conservative language. The very names of the New Deal agencies and programsâ€”the National Recovery Administration , the Agricultural Adjustment Administration , the Civilian Conservation Corps , the Tennessee Valley Authority , Social Security â€”promised that America would be repaired and strengthened rather than transformed. Even African Americans â€”for many of whom the toils of the Great Depression were hardly different from the travails of everyday life in segregated Americaâ€”found hope and inspiration in the New Deal, especially as it was enunciated by first lady Eleanor Roosevelt. They showed their support by switching their political allegiance from the Republican Party to the Democratic Party. The popular culture of the s reinforced this perception that Americans had entered an era of limits, where they should make the best of what they already had rather than embarking on a quest for the unobtainable. This was a soothing idea for people whose dreams of a more affluent and adventurous life had vanished. The resurgence of cultural nationalism was hardly unique to the United States. These initiatives marked the beginning of the U. Even as the worst economic problems of the Great Depression began to lift, the prevailing mindset could not forget the lessons of the era. The emotional scars, the fear of fear itself, could never be eradicated. But the Great Depression and its aftermath also encouraged a faith in, and a love of, what America presumably stood for. Here Dorothy played by Judy Garland is transported from her drab, gray Kansas farm to the magical and Technicolor land of Oz. People, he says, do not need a wizard and his miracles; all they need to do is look inside themselves. In John Steinbeck had portrayed an Oklahoma in *The Grapes of Wrath* that, like the rest of America, was still marked by scarcity and deprivation. It was this Americaâ€”having survived its idiosyncratic crisis in the s and having escaped the bombing of its cities and the destruction of its natural resources during World War IIâ€”that the rest of the world would have to decipher and deal with in the postwar years.

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Chapter 2 : The Great Depression and World War II, | Gilder Lehrman Institute of American History

â€¢ The roaring twenties in America ended with the stock market crash of 1929, which began a severe period of economic calamity known as the Great Depression.

Each respectively distilled the experience and defined the historical legacy of a century. Each embraced a pair of episodes with lastingly transformative impacts. From the Revolutionary War and the adoption of the Constitution brought national independence and established the basic political framework within which the nation would be governed ever after. To understand the logic and the consequences of those three moments is to understand much about the essence and the trajectory of all of American history. To a much greater degree than in the earlier cases, the changes set in motion by the Great Depression and World War II had their origins outside the United Statesâ€”a reminder of the increasing interdependency among nations that was such a salient feature of the twentieth century. The Great Depression was a worldwide catastrophe whose causes and consequences alike were global in character. Economists and historians continue to this day to debate the proximate causes of the Great Depression. The war exacted a cruel economic and human toll from the core societies of the advanced industrialized world, including conspicuously Britain, France, and Germany. The lingering distortions in trade, capital flows, and exchange rates occasioned by the punitive Treaty of Versailles, as the economist John Maynard Keynes observed at the time, managed to perpetuate in peacetime the economic disruptions that had wrought so much hardship in wartime. To those abundant physical and institutional ills might be added a rigidly doctrinaire faith in laissez-faire, balanced national budgets, and the gold standard. The United States had participated only marginally in the First World War, but the experience was sufficiently costly that Americans turned their country decidedly inward in the 1920s. Congress in effect closed the American market to foreign vendors with the Fordney-McCumber Tariff, among the highest in United States history, and the Smoot-Hawley Tariff eight years later. Washington also insisted that the Europeans repay the entirety of the loans extended to them by the US Treasury during the war. And in 1924 the republic for the first time in its history imposed a strict limit on the number of immigrants who could annually enter the country. Among those eventually excluded though none could yet know it were thousands of Jewish would-be fugitives from Nazi persecution. Militarily, diplomatically, commercially, financially, even morally, Americans thus turned their backs on the outside world. American prosperity in the 1920s was real enough, but it was not nearly as pervasive as legend has portrayed. And well before the Great Depression, almost as soon as the Great War concluded in 1918, a severe economic crisis had beset the farm-belt. It did not entirely lift until the next world war, more than twenty years later. Virtually none enjoyed such common urban amenities as electricity and indoor plumbing. Other maladies began to appear, faintly at first, but with mounting urgency as the Depression began to unfold. Some twenty-five thousand banks, most of them highly fragile "unitary" institutions with tiny service areas, little or no diversification of clients or assets, and microscopic capitalization, constituted the astonishingly vulnerable foundation of the national credit. As for governmentâ€”public spending at all levels, including towns, cities, counties, states, and the federal government itself, amounted only to about 15 percent of the gross domestic product in the 1920s, one-fifth of which was federal expenditures. Ideology aside, its very size made the federal government in the 1920s a kind of ninety-pound weakling in the fight against the looming depression. Then in the autumn of 1929, the bubble burst. The Great Crash in October sent stock prices plummeting and all but froze the international flow of credit. Banks failed by the thousands. Businesses collapsed by the tens of thousands. Herbert Hoover, elected just months earlier amid lavish testimonials to his peerless competence, saw his presidency shattered and his reputation forever shredded because of his inability to tame the depression monsterâ€”though, again contrary to legend, he toiled valiantly, using what tools he had and even inventing some new ones, as he struggled to get the upper hand. By 1932, some thirteen million Americans were out of work, one out of every four able and willing workers in the country. Even those horrendous numbers could not begin to take the full measure of the

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human misery that unemployment entailed. Given the demography of the labor force and prevailing cultural norms that kept most women—and virtually all married women—out of the wage-paying economy, a 25 percent unemployment rate meant that, for all practical purposes, every fourth household in America had no breadwinner. Many Americans came to believe that they were witnessing not just another downswing of the business cycle, but the collapse of a historic economic, political, and social order, perhaps even the end of the American way of life. Yet curiously, as many observers noted, most Americans remained inexplicably docile, even passive, in the face of this unprecedented calamity. Among those who were perplexed by the apparent submissiveness of the American people as the Depression descended was Franklin Delano Roosevelt. Repeatedly he spoke of this, saying that it was enormously puzzling to him that the ordeal of the past three years had been endured so peaceably. Those elusive but deep-seated and powerful American cultural characteristics go a long way toward explaining the challenge that faced any leader seeking to broaden the powers of government to combat the Depression. FDR and the New Deal Elected to the presidency in on a platform that promised "a new deal for the American people," Franklin Roosevelt now took up that challenge. He faced a task of compound difficulty: FDR was destined to hold office for more than a dozen years. He was thrice re-elected, a record matched by no previous incumbent and forbidden to all future presidents by the passage of the Twenty-second Amendment to the Constitution in FDR was then and has remained ever since a surpassingly enigmatic figure. His personality perplexed his contemporaries and has challenged his biographers ever since. His long-serving secretary of labor, Frances Perkins, called him "the most complicated human being I ever knew. It is appropriate to call it a vision: Roosevelt, like Hoover before him, never did find a remedy for the Great Depression. It hung heavily over the land for nearly a dozen years of suffering and anxiety without equal in the history of the republic. For the decade of the s as a whole, it averaged 17 percent. They gave birth to other institutions as well, including the Federal Housing Authority FHA and the Federal National Mortgage Association "Fannie Mae" to make mortgage lending more secure, thereby unleashing the money and the energy that made a majority of Americans homeowners and built the suburbs of the Sunbelt after World War II. They passed the Fair Labor Standards Act, abolishing at last the scourge of child labor and establishing minimum wage guarantees. Most famously, with the Social Security Act of they erected a comprehensive system of unemployment and old-age insurance to protect laid-off workers and the elderly against what FDR called "the hazards and vicissitudes of life. They sought not to nationalize core industries as commonly occurred in European states , nor even to attempt central direction of the national economy, but rather to use federal power in artful ways to make the private economy function more efficiently and less riskily as well as more fairly. The New Deal serves to this day as a political talisman, invoked variously by Left or Right to promote or denounce activist government or an enlarged public sphere. So by what historical standard should the New Deal be judged? If appraised on grounds of swiftly achieving economic recovery, despite some modest success, the New Deal must be declared a failure. And on those grounds the New Deal can be said to have succeeded handsomely. Roosevelt most explicitly acknowledged that larger ambition in his second Inaugural Address in , when he boasted that "our progress out of the depression is obvious," but then added the startling observation that "such symptoms of prosperity may become portents of disaster. What could Roosevelt have meant when he linked economic recovery with political disaster? He was talking, rather, about those farmers and immigrants and African Americans who had long languished on the margins of American life and whom he hoped to usher into its main stream. If FDR had somehow found the solution to the Depression by, say, the end of the fabled but in the last analysis scarcely consequential Hundred Days in , would there have been a New Deal as we know it? Save only FDIC, all the reforms mentioned above date from and thereafter. If the economy had been immediately restored to full health, it is at least arguable that business as usual would have meant politics as usual, and the United States would have missed what FDR called its "Rendezvous with Destiny"—that is, its chance to tame at last the volatile and destructive demon of no-holds-barred industrial capitalism whose unchecked gyrations had ravaged lives—and fortunes—for nearly a century before the s. Adolf Hitler and Franklin Roosevelt came to power within weeks of one another.

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Hitler was installed as the German chancellor on January 30, ; Roosevelt was inaugurated as President of the United States just thirty-three days later, on March 4. The challenges of the Great Depression and the accomplishments and shortcomings of the New Deal, and of FDR, cannot be understood outside of that framework. The Japanese attack on the US naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, on December 7, , brought the United States into the war as a formal belligerent—more than two years after the war had begun with the German invasion of Poland on September 1, . Yet while it has become a commonplace to note that the Pearl Harbor attack dramatically extinguished American isolationism, the fact is that traditional isolationist sentiment was by that time already markedly diminished—and that anxieties about its possible revival animated American leaders throughout the conflict and well into the postwar period. At the outset of his presidency, Franklin Roosevelt had not challenged the isolationist mood of his countrymen, declaring in his first Inaugural Address that "our international trade relations, though vastly important, are in point of time and necessity secondary to the establishment of a sound national economy. He chafed increasingly under the restrictions of the several "Neutrality Laws" that Congress passed between and , and succeeded at last in securing passage of the Lend-Lease Act in March , committing the vast economic resources of the United States to the war against the so-called Axis Powers of Germany, Japan, and Italy. Hitler, correctly, deemed the Lend-Lease Act tantamount to a declaration of war. To be sure, the United States took nearly sixteen million men and several thousand women into uniform, fielded a ninety-division ground force, floated a two-ocean navy, built a gigantic strategic bomber fleet, and suffered , military deaths. Yet the greatest American contribution to the war effort was neither manpower nor heroism, but cash and weapons. As the Soviet leader Joseph Stalin cynically but accurately observed, the United States adhered to a policy of fighting with American money, and American machines, and Russian men. In a war with the dubious historical distinction that it inflicted more civilian than military deaths, the American toll of civilian deaths attributable to enemy action in the forty-eight continental states was six—a young woman and five schoolchildren killed together by a crude Japanese balloon-borne fire bomb that exploded in south-central Oregon on May 5, . Thus if the response to the question "who won World War II? Yet if one means which country most benefited from victory, the equally unambiguous answer is the United States. Not only were American war deaths, proportionate to population, about one-sixtieth those in the Soviet Union, and one-fourth those in Great Britain, but among all the major belligerents, the United States alone managed to grow its civilian economy even while producing prodigious quantities of armaments and other supplies for itself and its allies. The civilian economies of both the Soviet Union and Great Britain shrank by nearly one-third during war time. In the United States civilian consumption expanded by nearly 15 percent. The war forever banished the Depression and ignited the economic after-burners that propelled the American economy to unprecedented heights of prosperity in the postwar decades. How did the Americans manage to fight a war so different from the war that so horribly punished so many other peoples? Geography—or, more precisely, the conjunction of geography with the technologies available in the mid-twentieth century—is surely part of the answer. Four great principles lay at the core of that grand strategy: The much-debated "unconditional surrender" formula that FDR announced at Casablanca in January was primarily intended to reassure the Soviets that the Americans and British, too, were committed to seeing the war through to the extinction of the Nazi regime, which eventually came on May 8, . The war against Japan, originally conceived as a purely defensive affair to hold the Japanese at bay in the mid-Pacific until Germany was defeated, took an unexpected turn in June when the Imperial Japanese Navy lost four aircraft carriers at the Battle of Midway. Though the war against Germany still had the higher priority, the door now opened for American offensive actions in the Pacific. US forces relentlessly closed in on the Japanese home islands, culminating in months of intensive firebombing raids against Japan and ultimately the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August , which clinched the Japanese decision to surrender. In that same month Winston Churchill declared that the triumphantly victorious United States, restored to economic health, flush with energy, morally and politically self-confident, stood "at the summit of the world. Viking, , Viking, , 3. Roosevelt, Second Inaugural Address,

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January 20, [http:](http://) The Speeches of Winston Churchill Boston: Houghton Mifflin, ,

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Chapter 3 : Revolution in s Spain | www.nxgvision.com

In the decade of the s the Spanish economy reported a slowdown of 20%, less severe than the one in the US, France and Germany, but very similar to those experienced by Italy and the UK.

Rise of the Totalitarian States With the onset of the age of anxiety, political dictatorships grew as people searched for stability and solution to the economic difficulties of the Great Depression. The end result was a combination of the resurgence of authoritarian rule coupled with a new type of ruthless and dynamic tyranny which reached its zenith in Nazi Germany and the Stalinist Soviet Union. The horrors of this time period are a disturbing chapter in history, which many would like to believe were an aberration and will not happen again. One would do well to learn the lessons of history, lest they be repeated in our own day. The typical form of anti-democratic government in Europe was conservative authoritarianism. Leaders of these governments, like Metternich and Catherine the Great who preceded them, attempted to prevent major changes which might undermine the existing social order. They did so by relying on an obedient bureaucracy, secret police, and armies who were loyal to them. Popular participation in government was either forbidden or severely limited to natural allies. Liberals, democrats, and socialists were persecuted, jailed, or exiled, if not executed. Such authoritarian governments did not have modern technology or means of communication, and as a result did not have the capacity to control many aspects of the lives of their citizens; however they apparently had no desire to do so, as they were preoccupied with their own survival. Their demands upon their own people largely consisted of taxes, army recruits and passive acceptance of government policy. As long as people did not attempt to change the system, they enjoyed a great degree of personal independence. After the First World War, the parliamentary governments of Eastern Europe founded on the wreckage of the war foundered and collapsed one at a time. By early , only Czechoslovakia remained loyal to democratic liberal ideals. There were several reasons for this: The affected countries did not have a strong tradition of self government, in which compromise and restraint are necessities. Many, such as Yugoslavia, were subject to ethnic conflict which threatened their existence. Dictatorships appealed to nationalists and military leaders as a way to repress resistance and restore order. Large landowners and the church often looked to dictators to save them from progressive land reform or communist upheaval. The small Middle Class of Eastern Europe also hoped for salvation from communism. The Great Depression itself was the coup de grace which forced many Eastern countries in the direction of totalitarianism. Totalitarian regimes, with the possible exception of Nazi Germany, which was concerned with territorial expansion, largely sought to preserve the status quo, rather than forcing rapid change on society. War was certainly not on their card. Hungary, where a totalitarian regime controlled parliamentary elections carefully. Peasants were not allowed to vote, and there was no land reform or major social change. Poland, where democracy was overturned in by General Joseph Pilsudski who established a military dictatorship. He was supported by the army, major industrialists, and nationalists. Opposition to the government was silenced. In , Antonio de Oliveira Salazar became dictator. A devout Catholic, he gave the church the strongest possible position in the country while controlling the press and outlawing most political activity. Traditional society was maintained. Although conservative authoritarianism predominated the smaller states of central and Eastern Europe, radical dictatorships appeared in Germany, the Soviet Union, and Italy to a somewhat lesser extent. They exercised unprecedented control over the masses and violently rejected any form of parliamentary rule. Three approaches are helpful in understanding these radical dictatorships: The rise of modern totalitarianism. The concept arose in the s and s. It was a new kind of state which many scholars have trouble defining even today. Early writers believed that it originated with the total war efforts of World War I, and that the war called forth a tendency to subordinate all institutions and all classes to the state in order to achieve the supreme objective: This type of totalitarian control is exemplified by Lenin, who demonstrated that a dedicated minority can take over control from a less dedicated majority. He also demonstrated how human rights and institutions could be subordinated to the needs of a single

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group—the Communist party. Later historians have argued that the totalitarian state used modern means to exercise complete political power. Deviation in art, music, even family behavior became a crime. Nothing was politically neutral, and nothing was outside the scope or control of the state. This was a complete break with the principles of the American and French Revolutions, which had sought to limit the power of the state and protect the rights of the individual. Totalitarians were disgusted by liberal ideals such as peaceful progress and individual freedom. They believed in willpower and preached conflict. Violence was an effective tool which they used with abandon. The individual was infinitely less valuable than the state, and there were no lasting rights, only individual rewards for loyal service to the state. Another approach if one eliminates the Soviet Union is the concept of fascism, a term which Hitler and Mussolini used with pride. Fascist government shared several characteristics, including extreme nationalism, often to the point of expansionism, antisocialism aimed at destroying working class movements, and alliances with powerful capitalists and landowners, mass parties, etc. All had a dynamic and violent leader who glorified war and the military. A third approach often used by modern historians emphasizes the uniqueness of developments in each country which succumbed to totalitarianism. They stress that change over time indicate unique situations in each country which gave rise to a unique form of totalitarianism. The factors which gave rise to Hitler in Germany are not the same as those which allowed Stalin to control the Italian government, although Hitler and Stalin shared many characteristics and quickly allied with each other. Antidemocratic totalitarian movements succeeded only in Italy and Germany and to a lesser extent in Spain. There may have been common elements, but there is no common explanation.

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Chapter 4 : The History Place - Rise of Hitler: Great Depression Begins

The Great Depression led to the rise of dictators because due to the economic downfall of numerous countries during the great depression, many parties revolted which provided the opportunity for.

World War I and the 1920s: As the European major powers began to fight each other, their international trade was suspended, which meant that Europe could no longer supply textiles, machinery and chemicals to the rest of the world. It was feared that Japanese investment would be adversely affected. In reality, Japan did experience severe shortages of high-quality machines and industrial inputs while their domestic demand surged. But very soon, it became clear that WWI would bring a huge bonanza to the Japanese economy at least in the short run because of the sudden increase in global demand for Japanese products. An enormous export-led boom was generated because i) global demand shifted from Europe to Japan; and ii) the US economy was expanding. The macroeconomy, previously suffering from trade deficits and gold reserve losses, was greatly stimulated by a sharp rise in foreign demand. In terms of GNP expenditure composition, exports rose, imports were slightly suppressed, investment was only moderately increased and with a lag shortage of machinery! What happened was a sharp rise in output without a corresponding capital stock increase thus, the operation ratio and "efficiency" shot up. Domestic consumption was crowded out by foreign demand forced saving through inflation. Naturally, business profits jumped and gold reserves accumulated. This is how Japan got out of the pre-WWI balance-of-payments crisis: A similar situation would occur again later, in the 1930s. The export-led boom was broad-based. Among them, marine transportation and shipbuilding were extremely profitable and expanded most strongly. Between 1913 and 1918, total manufacturing output rose 1. Clearly, this export-led boom was temporary only as long as WWI continued, which meant about 4 years. Japanese manufacturing was still internationally uncompetitive in cost and quality. Japan was capturing overseas markets under the special condition of the European war, which artificially boosted both the demand for and the prices of Japanese exports. Domestically, too, quick import substitution was possible because European goods did not arrive. In retrospect, most of the business expansion during WWI was inefficient, excessive and unsustainable. The sales the sum of orange and blue and profits blue of Nihon Yusen shipping company. The narikin in caricature: Because of the unprecedented boom, mediocre merchants and producers became suddenly rich and greatly expanded their enterprises. A class of nouveau riche called narikin emerged in Japanese chess, narikin means a pawn becoming a gold general. They were often without culture or taste and fond of showing off their material wealth. WWI required very little military operation from Japan. Japan did not engage in any serious combat. But Japan had a military alliance treaty with the UK, with Russia as the potential enemy, so the government used this treaty as an excuse for capturing German-occupied territories in Jiaozhou Wan around Qingdao in China and islands in the Southern Pacific. Collapse of the bubble In when WWI ended, a small business setback occurred. But the economy continued to do well in the 1920s. Then came the big crash of 1929. This postwar recession meant that the bubble had finally collapsed. Serious price deflation was recorded in many key commodities. There was no downward price rigidity in those days. Macroeconomic adjustment was effected mostly in prices and less in output. When the bubble ended, the lack of competitiveness and overcapacity of the Japanese economy, previously hidden under unsubstantiated exuberance, was now exposed. Most narikin were bankrupted. Their happy days were short. After that and throughout the 1930s, Japan went through a series of recession and a few banking crises the biggest bank runs occurred in see lecture 8. The economy slowed down significantly compared with the WWI period, but no severe fall in output occurred. Domestic demand was not buoyant but steady. Recessions were frequent but short-lived. Trade deficits returned and persisted, financed by the drawing down of the previously accumulated gold reserves. During the 1930s, the sky above the Japanese economy was neither sunny nor pouring. It was as if thick clouds gathered and stayed above the economy, depressing the economic mood of the country a bit like now, since the 1930s. Faced with the onset of a long recessionary period, it is noteworthy how the Japanese government reacted. It had two policy options: The

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Japanese government chose the first option. In particular, the Bank of Japan provided emergency loans to ailing banks and industries to avoid further bankruptcies and unemployment. This policy eased the short-term pain but implanted a time bomb in the Japanese economy which exploded several years later. Development of heavy and chemical industries But even under the cloudy sky of the s, new manufacturing industries were growing. Heavy and chemical industries HCI were expanding strongly, despite the relatively weak macroeconomy. HCI growth was broad-based, including steel, chemicals, electrical and general machinery, artificial silk rayon , etc. Import substitution of these industries proceeded rapidly. By the s, Japan could produce most machines domestically. This was a big change from the Meiji period. There were several reasons for HCI growth: Fiscal activism including military buildup continued to be pursued by Seiyukai Party lecture 9 governments, and tariff protection for emerging HCI was adopted. Government also promoted the formation of industrial cartels to avoid excess competition and overcapacity. Construction of hydraulic power plants occupied the largest part of private-sector investment besides that, private railroad construction was also buoyant. In Kansai area Western Japan , a surplus in electricity emerged so electric companies adopted discriminatory pricing, charging very low prices to large corporate customers marginal cost for producing hydraulic power was virtually zero. This stimulated the growth of electricity-intensive industries, such as the production of ammonium sulfate. The business relationship took various forms including Japanese subsidiaries, joint ventures, equity participation and technical cooperation. For instance, growth of the steel industry stimulated and supported the steel-using industries like shipbuilding and machinery, and vice versa. As a result of HCI development, a new type of zaibatsu emerged in the s and the s. The largest among them were Nissan, Nichitsu and Mori. Compared with the old zaibatsu such as Mitsui and Mitsubishi, new zaibatsu had the following characteristics: They often invested aggressively in the Japanese colonies such as Korea and Manchuria Northeastern China. Raising capital from the stock market, business was diversified into mining, machinery, automobile, chemicals, fishery, and so forth. Invested heavily in Manchuria. Hitachi and Nissan Motors belonged to this group. The main business was electricity-intensive chemical industries, such as fertilizer, rayon, medicine, explosives and metal refining. Invested heavily in Korea. Its main business included iodine, fertilizer, aluminum refining, electrical machinery, explosives, and so on. Exchange rate volatility The pre-WW1 world economy enjoyed price stability and free trade under the international gold standard from the s through Japan joined the gold standard and fixed its exchange rate in Soon, Japanese prices converged to the world level. But the international gold standard and the fixed exchange rate system were smashed by WW1, and the Japanese yen started to float in After WW1, advanced countries made a number of attempts to restore the prewar gold standard system without much success. The UK returned to gold in but abandoned it again in The gold standard could not be re-established because i there was less free trade and more protectionism than before the global goods market was less integrated ; and ii governments now cared more about domestic macroeconomy than external gold convertibility. As a result, international monetary cooperation was hardly possible. The government considered restoring a fixed exchange rate in , and , but each time failed for various reasons. Throughout this period, "return to gold" or "liberalization of gold export" became a national economic goal. Every time the government announced such a policy intention, expectations drove up the yen because the actual yen was more depreciated than the prewar parity but the yen fell back when the policy was not realized. The business community blamed domestic banks and foreign exchange traders especially those in Shanghai for speculation. This exchange instability may have further damaged the Japanese economy faced with slow growth. Before restoring the gold parity, Inoue implemented a macroeconomic austerity program and deflated the economy in order to return to the now-overvalued exchange rate. In his speech, Inoue said: We must liberalize gold export [restore the fixed exchange rate] as soon as possible. But we cannot liberalize gold export without preparation. What is required for preparation? The government must tighten the budget. The people must accept this fiscal austerity and they themselves must reduce consumption. If that happens, prices will start fall and imports will begin to contract. That will create an upward pressure on the yen in the foreign exchange. We face a recession without an end in sight. If

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nothing is done, we will sink deeper into the recession.

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Chapter 5 : Great Depression - Popular culture | www.nxgvision.com

Rise of the Totalitarian States. With the onset of the age of anxiety, political dictatorships grew as people searched for stability and solution to the economic difficulties of the Great Depression.

Bring fact-checked results to the top of your browser search. New order emerging, 1945 The advances in economic growth and political stabilization that were evident in most of Latin America by the early 20th century came up against an array of challenges as the century wore on. The forward momentum was not necessarily lost—although Mexico experienced negative economic growth along with great political turmoil during the first decade of the Mexican Revolution beginning in 1910—but some partial changes of direction occurred, and new problems kept emerging. The external factors are generally easier to identify, if only because of the suddenness of their impact. Economic and social developments World war and world trade Few Latin Americans felt strong emotional identification with either of the contending alliances in World War I, 1918, except for the immigrant communities in southern South America and the ranks of generally Francophile liberal intellectuals. Of the major countries, only Brazil followed the example of the United States in declaring war on Germany, while Mexico and Argentina, which respectively saw the United States as a bullying neighbour and a hemispheric rival, vied for a leadership role in behalf of Latin American neutrality. Yet all countries were affected by the wartime disruption of trade and capital flows, particularly those that had in recent years most successfully penetrated European markets with their own exports and become important consumers of European goods and financial services. Argentina was an obvious example. The outbreak of war brought a sharp decline in its trade as the Allied powers diverted shipping elsewhere and Germany became inaccessible. Although exports soon recovered, mainly in the form of meat to feed Allied troops, imported manufactures were scarce because overseas factories were devoted to war production, and scarcity drove up prices. Wartime disruptions were only temporary, and they gave way to a frenzied boom in the immediate postwar period as Latin American exporters cashed in on pent-up demand in the former warring powers. Those hazards were underscored again by the costly program Brazil felt compelled to undertake to support the price of coffee, buying up surplus production and keeping it off the market. Yet one reason for the latter was the expansion of cultivation in other Latin American countries, above all Colombia, which by the end of World War I had emerged as the second leading producer—encouraged by, among other things, the Brazilian price support efforts. Nevertheless, the decade of the 1920s was generally a period of economic growth and renewed optimism. All countries continued to pursue an outward-directed growth strategy insofar as they pursued a conscious strategy at all, placing few impediments in the way of import-export trade. New capital flowed both into productive activities, like the Venezuelan petroleum industry controlled by U.S. The emerging force of nationalism The growing importance of foreign capital inevitably provoked a nationalist backlash, which reinforced the cultural nationalism already strong among groups of intellectuals and the anti-imperialist sentiment provoked by U.S. Cultural nationalism was associated above all with conservatives who cherished the Iberian heritage as a shield against corrupting Anglo-Saxon influences, while the leading anti-imperialist spokesmen tended to be leftist. Incipient left-wing parties and labour unions were also in the forefront of economic nationalism, because, among other reasons, foreign-owned firms provided a more popular target than local enterprises. British nitrate investors in Chile thus faced serious labour unrest, as did the Boston-based United Fruit Company, hit by a violent strike in late in the Colombian banana zone. Petroleum investors in Mexico faced serious labour unrest in addition to a simmering conflict with the government itself over the control of subsoil resources, which the new constitution of 1917 had declared exclusive property of the nation. A further escalation of economic nationalism came with the world economic depression of 1929 and after, though more as a defensive reaction than as a conscious policy. At one point, a pound of Cuban sugar was selling for less than the U.S. In response to the crisis, Latin American countries raised their own tariffs and imposed other restrictions on foreign trade. Even if the immediate purpose was conservation of scarce foreign

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exchange rather than the theoretical goal of increasing economic independence, the result was a decided impetus to domestic manufacturing, whose beneficiaries later appealed to nationalist sentiments to preserve the gains made. In Colombia, textile production increased during the 1920s at a faster rate than in England during the Industrial Revolution, despite the fact that the government continued to see protection of the coffee industry as its primary economic mission. But manufacturing made important gains in almost all the larger Latin American nations, which already before the depression had begun the development of an industrial base. It remains to be said, however, that, except for Mexico with its well-established iron and steel industry, manufacturing still consisted almost wholly of consumer goods production. In Brazil, for similar reasons, tight restrictions were imposed on the flow of immigrants. Even without restrictions, however, and despite the fact that some countries recovered quickly from the effects of the depression, Latin America in the 1920s was simply not as attractive to immigrants as before. Population and social change In some countries the life of most inhabitants seemed little changed in 1920, at the end of World War II, from what it had been in 1910. This was the case in Paraguay, still overwhelmingly rural and isolated, and Honduras, except for its coastal banana enclave. But in Latin America as a whole more people were becoming linked to the national and world economies, introduced to rudimentary public education, and exposed to emerging mass media. It was still not explosive, for, while birth rates in most countries remained high, death rates had not yet been sharply reduced by advances in public health. But it was steady, the total Latin American population rising from roughly 60 million in 1910 to 100 million at mid-century. The urban proportion had reached about 40 percent, though with great differences among countries. Moreover, the usual pattern was that of a single primate city vastly overshadowing lesser urban centres. Yet even that was as many as lived in Tegucigalpa, the capital of Honduras. What such rural workers most clearly had in common was grossly inadequate access to health and education services and a low material standard of living. A socioeconomic and cultural gulf separated them from traditional large landowners as well as from the owners or managers of commercial agribusinesses. In the cities an industrial working class was more and more in evidence, at least in the larger countries, where the size of the internal market made industrialization feasible even with low average purchasing power. However, factory workers did not necessarily form the most important urban sector, to some extent because the growth of cities had been more rapid than that of the manufacturing industry. Moreover, port, transportation, and service workers—or miners, as in the Chilean nitrate fields—rather than factory workers usually led the way in union organization and strike actions. One reason was the high proportion of women workers in early factories, who, though even more exploited than male workers, were perceived by radical activists as less-promising recruits than stevedores or locomotive firemen. In urban settings the most important social development in the short run was the steady expansion of middling white-collar and professional groups. The middle sectors were, in any case, the chief beneficiaries of the expansion of educational facilities, which they strongly supported and used as means of upward mobility. Urban workers, for their part, had access to primary education but rarely secondary; at least they were now mainly literate, whereas most rural Latin Americans still were not. Yet, starting in the 1920s, the rapid spread of the new medium of radio throughout Latin America exposed even illiterate people to an emerging mass culture. Additions to transportation infrastructure also contributed to greater integration of isolated population clusters. The most essential rail lines had already taken shape by 1910, but the coming of automotive transport led to a major upgrading and extension of highways, and the airplane introduced an entirely new mode of transportation. Air travel similarly played a key role in knitting together far-flung sections of Brazil previously connected by coastal steamer. Transport improvements of all kinds favoured the creation not only of national markets but of shared national cultures, in the latter respect reinforcing the effects of popular education and radio. Challenges to the political order The economic and social changes taking place in Latin America inevitably triggered demands for political change as well; political change in turn affected the course of socioeconomic development. Neither dictatorial nor oligarchic regimes gave due representation to the majority of inhabitants. The Mexican Revolution The immediate challenge to existing regimes in country after country usually came from disaffected members of

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the traditional ruling groups and from the expanding middle sectors resentful of their exclusion from a fair share of power and privilege. Miners, urban workers, and peasants saw an opportunity to seek redress of their own grievances, while rival revolutionaries bitterly fought against each other. The end result was a system built around an all-powerful political party—the Institutional Revolutionary Party *Partido Revolucionario Institucional*; PRI, as it ultimately called itself—that skillfully co-opted labour and peasant organizations. Broadening of political participation The Mexican Revolution evoked widespread admiration elsewhere in Latin America, especially for its commitment to socioeconomic reform, but the Mexican political system had few imitators. In the Southern Cone, a common pattern was the broadening of participation within a more conventional democratic system where at least the middle sectors gained a meaningful share of power and benefits. This happened in Argentina following an electoral reform of that made universal male suffrage effective for the first time and paved the way for the Radical Civic Union party, with strong middle-class support, to take power four years later. In Chile a reformist coalition won the election of 1925, but strife between president and parliament brought a relapse into instability and short-lived military dictatorship. By the time Chile returned to stable political life in 1927, it had been equipped with a new constitution that was less susceptible to oligarchic obstructionism and an apparatus of social legislation that benefited both the middle class and urban workers, though it largely ignored the peasantry. However, Uruguay outstripped all others both in political democratization and as a pioneer welfare state, with minimum-wage legislation, an advanced social security system, and much else, even before 1930. Elsewhere the record was mixed. Costa Rica came close to approximating the pattern of the Southern Cone, and in Colombia the Liberal Party, after its return to power in 1930, went partway toward incorporating labour as an actor on the national scene. Ecuador in 1929 became the first Latin American nation to adopt woman suffrage, though it still required literacy to vote and far fewer women than men could read. Within four years Brazil, Uruguay, and Cuba—of which only the first retained a similar literacy test—had followed suit. But in Peru a president who flirted too far with social and political reform at the time of World War I was ousted by military coup. Expanding role of the state The world depression—which saw governments changed by irregular means in every Latin American country except Colombia, Venezuela, Costa Rica, and Honduras—temporarily ended the progress being made toward political democracy. Even where constitutional rule was not interrupted, chief executives felt the need as also in the United States to take emergency measures, and the enlargement of government functions in dealing with the economy outlasted the emergency itself. At the same time, leaders everywhere were coming to the conclusion that social ills must be ameliorated, if only to ward off revolutionary threats from below. Vargas was an authoritarian ruler but a constructive one. Nor was he the only military or civilian strongman who moved to expand the functions of the state both to take the edge off worker discontent and, if possible, to strengthen the national economy against new emergencies. After sponsoring the liberal Cuban constitution of 1901, he managed to become a democratically elected president. Socialism, communism, fascism Latin America in the first half of the 20th century was feeling the impact of outside events not only on its economy but also politically, by the spread of imported ideologies and through the examples both of President Franklin D. Roosevelt and the Russian Revolution. Henceforth, the left consisted of socialist parties of generally moderate bent, inspired in large part by European social democracy; breakaway socialists who admired the Russian Revolution of 1917 and proceeded to found communist parties in their own countries; and, not least, such strictly Latin American expressions as the Mexican agrarian reform movement. Socialist parties were strongest in the Southern Cone, the Chilean briefly gaining a share of national power as a member of a Popular Front government elected in 1932. The communists were also strong in Chile but first entered a national administration in Cuba, after Batista had been elected president with their support in 1934. Once the Soviet Union entered World War II in 1941, communist parties in several other countries, including Brazil and Nicaragua, formed alliances with local strongmen, but they nowhere became a true mass party, and an exaggerated fear of Bolshevism on the part of Latin American elites meant that the communist parties were subject to widespread repression except during the war itself. Some other political organizations were frankly influenced by European fascism, but in most countries their membership

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was numerically insignificant. Hence the influence of fascism was more often exercised through homegrown authoritarians who were attracted to certain aspects of it but carefully avoided any open embrace. During the s it had already begun a retreat from the policy of active intervention in Latin America. Roosevelt completed the shift. His domestic policies were much admired in Latin America and in some cases copied by moderate reformists, but his Good Neighbor Policy won the warm approval of almost all Latin American rulers, since it entailed formal renunciation of the right of intervention in favour of peaceful cajoling and assorted economic, military, and technical aid programs. These programs were launched on the eve of World War II to help hemispheric neighbours prepare for the emergency. They were expanded after the start of the conflict, whose economic impact on Latin America was generally comparable to that of World War I but more intense because of the earlier and deeper involvement of the United States. The war emergency naturally gave still further impetus to the development of national industries to replace scarce imports. The Good Neighbor approach proved far more effective in promoting U. The one other Latin American country to send forces overseas was Brazil, which put an expeditionary force in Italy. In the end all countries not only broke relations with the Axis powers but declared war, though Argentina took the latter step only at the last possible moment, in March

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Chapter 6 : Economic history of Argentina - Wikipedia

When the Great Depression broke out in , Spain fell into a severe economic crisis, and the ruling class found that it could no longer contain the growing anger with brute force.

Great Depression Begins When the stock market collapsed on Wall Street on Tuesday, October 29, , it sent financial markets worldwide into a tailspin with disastrous effects. Fallout from the Great Depression - A young and hopelessly unemployed Berliner panhandles for spare change. A run on a bank in Berlin. May Day brings a huge turn-out of pro-communist Berliners expressing admiration of Soviet Russia. The German economy was especially vulnerable since it was built upon foreign capital, mostly loans from America and was very dependent on foreign trade. When those loans suddenly came due and when the world market for German exports dried up, the well oiled German industrial machine quickly ground to a halt. As production levels fell, German workers were laid off. Along with this, banks failed throughout Germany. Savings accounts, the result of years of hard work, were instantly wiped out. Inflation soon followed making it hard for families to purchase expensive necessities with devalued money. Overnight, the middle class standard of living so many German families enjoyed was ruined by events outside of Germany, beyond their control. The Great Depression began and they were cast into poverty and deep misery and began looking for a solution, any solution. Adolf Hitler knew his opportunity had arrived. In the good times before the Great Depression the Nazi Party experienced slow growth, barely reaching , members in a country of over sixty million. But the Party, despite its tiny size, was a tightly controlled, highly disciplined organization of fanatics poised to spring into action. Since the failed Beer Hall Putsch in , Hitler had changed tactics and was for the most part playing by the rules of democracy. Hitler had gambled in , attempting to overthrow the young German democracy by force, and lost. Now he was determined to overthrow it legally by getting elected while at the same time building a Nazi shadow government that would one day replace the democracy. Hitler had begun his career in politics as a street brawling revolutionary appealing to disgruntled World War I veterans predisposed to violence. By he was quite different, or so it seemed. Hitler counted among his supporters a number of German industrialists, and upper middle class socialites, a far cry from the semi-literate toughs he started out with. He intentionally broadened his appeal because it was necessary. Now he needed to broaden his appeal to the great mass of voting Germans. His chief assets were his speech making ability and a keen sense of what the people wanted to hear. By mid, amid the economic pressures of the Great Depression, the German democratic government was beginning to unravel. He had spent years working to restore the German economy and stabilize the republic and died, having exhausted himself in the process. The crisis of the Great Depression brought disunity to the political parties in the Reichstag. Instead of forging an alliance to enact desperately need legislation, they broke up into squabbling, uncompromising groups. Despite the overwhelming need for a financial program to help the German people, Chancellor Bruening encountered stubborn opposition to his plans. To break the bitter stalemate, he went to President Hindenburg and asked the Old Gentleman to invoke Article 48 of the German constitution which gave emergency powers to the president to rule by decree. This provoked a huge outcry from the opposition, demanding withdrawal of the decree. As a measure of last resort, Bruening asked Hindenburg in July to dissolve the Reichstag according to parliamentary rules and call for new elections. The elections were set for September 14th. Hitler and the Nazis sprang into action. Their time for campaigning had arrived. The German people were tired of the political haggling in Berlin. They were tired of misery, tired of suffering, tired of weakness. These were desperate times and they were willing to listen to anyone, even Adolf Hitler.

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Chapter 7 : A New Society: Economic & Social Change

During the 20s and 30s, political and economical issues allowed dictatorships to begin in Germany, Italy, Russia and Japan. WWI left many countries in poverty, which caused panic among the citizens, who looked to powerful people they thought could solve the problems.

The 20s was a decade of increasing conveniences for the middle class. New products made household chores easier and led to more leisure time. Products previously too expensive became affordable. New forms of financing allowed every family to spend beyond their current means. A typical work week for a housewife before the twenties involved many tedious chores. The ice in the icebox was replaced and the waterpan that lay beneath was repeatedly changed. The clothes were scrubbed in a washing tub on a washboard. An iron was heated on the stove to smooth out the wrinkles. Women typically spent the summer months canning food for the long winter. Clothes were made from patterns, and bread was made from scratch. Very few of these practices were necessary by the end of the decade. Vacuum cleaners displaced the carpet beater. Electric refrigerators, washing machines, and irons saved hours of extra work. New methods of canning and freezing made store-bought food cheap and effective enough to eliminate this chore. Off-the-rack clothing became more and more widespread. Even large bakeries were supplying bread to the new supermarkets. The hours saved in household work were countless. Buying on Credit "Buy now, pay later" became the credo of many middle class Americans of the Roaring Twenties. For the single-income family, all these new conveniences were impossible to afford at once. But retailers wanted the consumer to have it all. Department stores opened up generous lines of credit for those who could not pay up front but could demonstrate the ability to pay in the future. Similar installment plans were offered to buyers who could not afford the lump sum, but could afford "twelve easy payments. Consumer debt more than doubled between 1920 and 1929. Advertising Fueling consumer demand were new techniques in advertising. This was not a new business, but in the increasingly competitive marketplace, manufacturers looked to more and more aggressive advertising campaigns. One major trend of the decade was to use pop psychology methods to convince Americans that the product was needed. The classic example was the campaign for Listerine. Using a seldom heard term for bad breath "halitosis" Listerine convinced thousands of Americans to buy their product. Consumers might not have known what halitosis was, but they surely knew they did not want it. Advertisers were no longer simply responding to demand; they were creating demand. Radio became an important new means of communicating a business message. Testimonials from Hollywood film stars sold products in record numbers. The advertising business created demand for the gadgets and appliances being manufactured by American factories. American Picture Palaces Where would you go in to see the latest movie? To a movie palace, of course. And palaces they were, seating up to patrons. See more facts and images at this site from the University of Virginia.

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Chapter 8 : Francisco Franco - Wikipedia

In Venezuela and Central America the situation was the reverse. During the war the State Department endorsed all-American oil concessions, but, in accordance with the principle of reciprocity, Hughes instructed his Latin-American ambassadors in to respect foreign interests.

Early life[edit] His parents with Francisco in arms, on the day of his baptism on 17 December Franco was born on 4 December at Calle Frutos Saavedra in Ferrol , Galicia. Arms of the Franco family until [20] [21] His father was of Andalusian ancestry. His parents married in The latter died in infancy. Military career[edit] Rif War and advancement through the ranks[edit] Francisco was to follow his father into the Navy, but as a result of the Spanish–American War the country lost much of its navy as well as most of its colonies. Not needing any more officers, the Naval Academy admitted no new entrants from to In , he entered the Infantry Academy in Toledo , graduating in July as second lieutenant st out of cadets. Spanish efforts to occupy their new African protectorate provoked the protracted Rif War from to with native Moroccans. Their tactics resulted in heavy losses among Spanish military officers , and also provided an opportunity to earn promotion through merit. Franco quickly gained a reputation as a good officer. Moroccan colonial troops with Spanish officers, who acted as shock troops. The letters between the two were found and she was questioned by journalists. In , aged 23 and already a captain, he was shot by enemy machine gun fire. He was badly wounded in the abdomen, specifically the liver, in a skirmish at El Biutz and possibly lost a testicle. His survival marked him permanently in the eyes of the native troops as a man of baraka good luck. With that he was promoted to major at the end of February at age This made him the youngest major in the Spanish army. From to , he served in Spain. On 24 July , the poorly commanded and overextended Spanish Army suffered a crushing defeat at Annual from Rif tribesmen led by the Abd el-Krim brothers. The Legion and supporting units relieved the Spanish enclave of Melilla after a three-day forced march led by Franco. In , by now a lieutenant colonel , he was made commander of the Legion. Promoted to colonel , Franco led the first wave of troops ashore at Al Hoceima in This made him the youngest general in Spain, and perhaps the youngest general of Europe. In Franco was appointed director of the newly created General Military Academy of Zaragoza, a new college for all army cadets , replacing the former separate institutions for young men seeking to become officers in infantry, cavalry, artillery, and other branches of the army. During the Second Spanish Republic[edit] With the fall of the monarchy in , Franco did not take any notable stand. For six months Franco was without a post and under surveillance. Yet it was quite common for the Conservative Officers to be moved or demoted. New elections held in October resulted in a centre-right majority. Franco, already General of Division and aide to the war minister, Diego Hidalgo , was put in command of the operations directed to suppress the insurgency. After two weeks of heavy fighting and a death toll estimated between 1, and 2, , the rebellion was suppressed. Some time after these events, Franco was briefly commander-in-chief of the Army of Africa from 15 February onwards , and from 19 May , on, Chief of the General Staff. Spanish general election, After the ruling centre-right coalition collapsed amid the Straperlo corruption scandal, new elections were scheduled. Two wide coalitions formed: On 16 February , the left won by a narrow margin. The government and its supporters, the Popular Front, had launched a campaign against the Opposition whom they accused of plotting against the Republic. According to the right-wing opposition, the real enemies of the Republic were not on the Right but on the Left; Spain was in imminent danger of falling under a "Communist dictatorship", and therefore by fighting the democratically elected Popular Front, they were merely doing their duty in defence of law and order and of the freedom and the fundamental rights of the Spanish people. In June, Franco was contacted and a secret meeting was held within the forest of La Esperanza on Tenerife to discuss starting a military coup. On 23 June , he wrote to the head of the government, Casares Quiroga , offering to quell the discontent in the Spanish Republican Army , but received no reply. After various postponements, 18 July was fixed as the date of the uprising. The situation reached a point of no return and, as presented to

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Franco by Mola, the coup was unavoidable and he had to choose a side. He decided to join the rebels and was given the task of commanding the Army of Africa. On 18 July, Franco published a manifesto [44] and left for Africa, where he arrived the next day to take command. A week later the rebels, who soon called themselves the Nationalists, controlled a third of Spain; most naval units remained under control of the Republican loyalist forces, which left Franco isolated. The coup had failed in the attempt to bring a swift victory, but the Spanish Civil War had begun. Despite the Non-Intervention Agreement of August, the war was marked by foreign intervention on behalf of both sides, leading to international repercussions. They were opposed by the Soviet Union and communist, socialists and anarchists within Spain. This interpretation has not found acceptance among most historians, who consider the Spanish Civil War and Second World War to be two distinct conflicts. Among other things, they point to the political heterogeneity on both sides See Spanish Civil War: The first months[edit] Following 18 July pronunciamiento, Franco assumed the leadership of the 30,000 soldiers of the Spanish Army of Africa. The first days of the insurgency were marked with a serious need to secure control over the Spanish Moroccan Protectorate. On one side, Franco had to win the support of the natives and their nominal authorities, and, on the other, had to ensure his control over the army. His method was the summary execution of some senior officers loyal to the Republic one of them his own cousin. His loyal bodyguard was shot by Manuel Blanco. He requested help from Benito Mussolini, who responded with an unconditional offer of arms and planes; in Germany Wilhelm Canaris, the head of the Abwehr military intelligence, persuaded Hitler to support the Nationalists. From 20 July onward Franco was able, with a small group of 22 mainly German Junkers Ju 52 aircraft, to initiate an air bridge to Seville, where his troops helped to ensure the rebel control of the city. Through representatives, he started to negotiate with the United Kingdom, Germany, and Italy for more military support, and above all for more aircraft. Negotiations were successful with the last two on 25 July and aircraft began to arrive in Tetouan on 2 August. On 5 August Franco was able to break the blockade with the newly arrived air support, successfully deploying a ship convoy with some 2,000 soldiers. All these planes had the Nationalist Spanish insignia painted on them, but were flown by Italian and German nationals. Therefore, in the nationalist zone, "Political life ceased. From 24 July a coordinating junta was established, based at Burgos. Nominally led by Cabanellas, as the most senior general, [49] it initially included Mola, three other generals, and two colonels; Franco was later added in early August. After the failed assault on Madrid in November, Franco settled on a piecemeal approach to winning the war, rather than bold maneuvering. As with his decision to relieve the garrison at Toledo, this approach has been subject of some debate; some of his decisions, such as in June when he preferred to head for Valencia instead of Catalonia, remain particularly controversial from a military viewpoint. Valencia, Castellon and Alicante saw the last Republican troops defeated by Franco. Although both Germany and Italy provided military support to Franco, the degree of influence of both powers on his direction of the war seems to have been very limited. Nevertheless, the Italian troops, despite not being always effective, were present in most of the large operations in large numbers, while the German aircraft helped the Nationalist air force dominate the skies for most of the war. The Portuguese dictator Salazar also openly assisted the Nationalists from the start, contributing with 20,000 troops. For reasons of prestige it was decided to continue assisting Franco until the end of the war, and Italian and German troops paraded on the day of the final victory in Madrid.

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Chapter 9 : History of Latin America - New order emerging, 1914-1945 | www.nxgvision.com

Following a brief post WWI economic decline, the 1920s brought a period of prosperity for Americans and a general increase in the standard of living for a number of citizens.

The author of this study discusses how the economic system known as "capitalism" is characterized by economic crises as a result of its cyclical nature. These crises are the product of various factors, among them the fall in profitability of companies with high capital costs. He states that productive centralization creates monopolies, which distorts free competition. This is the key mechanism for pricing in the economy, i.e. He rightly observes that new economic world orders originate in various social conflicts, particularly war, which distorts the system of free competition. The author focuses on how the negative economic position currently facing the U.S. At the end of the 19th century, the United States exported capital and innovative products cars and electro domestic goods to Latin American countries, whose economies focused on the export of primary commodities in the agricultural and oil sectors. In brief, what was the crash of 1929? It was the major fall of stock market values in leading public companies on the New York stock exchange. According to classic research on the subject by the authors J. Kindleberger, the collapse originated in speculative financial management. The author suggests a cause-effect relationship in this financial collapse, which limited the export of capital to Latin America with the emerging establishment of industry in the Latin American subcontinent. It is worth noting that the crash was a milestone in capitalist development because it demonstrated what is now described as "the superior phase of capitalism" imperialism. It merits attention that the author associates capitalism directly with imperialism, given that there have been many powerful, hegemonic empires in world history that have not been linked to capitalism, such as the Roman Empire, to cite one example. Furthermore, while the United States rapidly took center stage worldwide, England quickly lost her international financial monopoly and ceased to be an exporting power. It is important to highlight how the United States resolved the serious unemployment problems generated by the Crash of 1929 by stimulating "effective demand" and promoting growth, through a heterodox economic approach. This exercise resulted in the New Deal Welfare State, which proposed a significant increase in public spending: This reconstruction was not only economic, it also permitted the rise of the Fascist State in Germany in the 1930s which ended up renouncing most of this debt. There were various impacts on Latin America: For Argentina, whose income per capita was similar to European countries, the impact of the crisis was a lot less than for the rest of the region, whose income per capita was five times less. For this reason the Americans were not impartial during the Mexican Revolution and allowed Francisco I. Madero to reside in the United States and prepare his armed rebellion. The Latin American subcontinent had to change its view on economic development after the 1929 crisis and rather than viewing Europe as the economic world center, was forced to be more influenced by and dependent upon the economic decisions of the United States.