American and Soviet troops meet east of the Elbe River.

Nuclear explosion at Hiroshima.

On December 16, 1944 German forces counter-attacked in the Ardennes against the Western Allies. It took six weeks for the Allies to repulse the attack. The Soviets attacked through Hungary, while the Germans abandoned Greece and Albania and were driven out of southern Yugoslavia by partisans.[158] In Italy, the Western Allies remained stalemated at the German defensive line. In mid-January 1945, the Soviets attacked in Poland, pushing from the Vistula to the Oder river in Germany, and overran East Prussia.[159]

On February 4, U.S., British, and Soviet leaders met in Yalta. They agreed on the occupation of post-war Germany,[160] and when the Soviet Union would join the war against Japan.[161]

In February, the Soviets invaded Silesia and Pomerania, while Western Allied forces entered western Germany and closed to the Rhine river. In March, the Western Allies crossed the Rhine north and south of the Ruhr, encircling a large number of German troops, while the Soviets advanced to Vienna. In early April the Western Allies finally pushed forward in Italy and swept across eastern Germany, while in late April Soviet forces stormed Berlin; the two forces linked up on Elbe River on April 25.

Several changes in leadership occurred during this period. On April 12, U.S. President Roosevelt died; he was succeeded by Harry Truman. Benito Mussolini was killed by Italian partisans on April 28[162] and two days later Hitler committed suicide, succeeded by Grand Admiral Karl Dönitz.[163]

Soviet soldiers raising the Soviet flag over the Reichstag after its capture

German forces surrendered in Italy on April 29 and in Western Europe on May 7.[164] However, fighting continued on the Eastern Front until the Germans surrendered specifically to the Soviets on May 8. In Prague, resistance of remnants of German Army continued until May 11.

In the Pacific theater, American forces advanced in the Philippines, clearing Leyte by the end of 1944. They landed on Luzon in January 1945 and Mindanao in March.[165] British and Chinese forces defeated the Japanese in northern Burma from October to March, then the British pushed on to Rangoon by May 3.[166] American forces also moved toward Japan, taking Iwo Jima by March, and Okinawa by June.[167] American bombers destroyed Japanese cities, and American submarines cut off Japanese imports.[168]

On July 11, the Allied leaders met in Potsdam, Germany. They confirmed earlier agreements about Germany,[169] and reiterated the demand for unconditional surrender by Japan, specifically stating that "the alternative for Japan is prompt and utter destruction".[170] During this conference the United Kingdom held its general election and Clement Attlee replaced Churchill as Prime Minister.
Advances in technology and warfare
Main article: Technology during World War II
During the war, aircraft continued their roles of reconnaissance, fighters, bombers and ground-support from World War I, though each area was advanced considerably. Two important additional roles for aircraft were those of the airlift, the capability to quickly move high-priority supplies, equipment and personnel, albeit in limited quantities; and of strategic bombing, the targeted use of bombs against civilian areas in the hopes of hampering enemy industry and morale. Anti-aircraft weaponry also continued to advance, including key defences such as radar and greatly improved anti-aircraft artillery, such as the German 88 mm gun. Jet aircraft saw their first limited operational use during World War II, and though their late introduction and limited numbers meant that they had no real impact during the war itself, the few which saw active service pioneered a mass-shift to their usage following the war.

At sea, while advances were made in almost all aspects of naval warfare, the two primary areas of development were focused around aircraft carriers and submarines. Although at the start of the war aeronautical warfare had relatively little success, actions at Taranto, Pearl Harbor, the South China Sea and the Coral Sea soon established the carrier as the dominant capital ship in place of the battleship. In the Atlantic, escort carriers proved to be a vital part of Allied convoys, increasing the effective protection radius dramatically and helping to seal the Mid-Atlantic gap. Beyond their increased effectiveness, carriers were also more economical than battleships due to the relatively low cost of aircraft and their not requiring to be as heavily armoured. Submarines, which had proved to be an effective weapon during the first World War were anticipated by all sides to be important in the second. The British focused development on anti-submarine weaponry and tactics, such as sonar and convoys, while Germany focused on improving its offensive capability, with designs such as the Type VII submarine and Wolf pack tactics. Gradually, continually improving Allied technologies such as the Leigh light, hedgehog, squid, and homing torpedoes proved victorious.

Land warfare changed drastically from the static front lines predetermining in World War I to become much more fluid and mobile. An important change was the concept of combined arms warfare, wherein tight coordination was sought between the various elements of military forces; the tank, which had been used predominately for infantry support in the First World War, had evolved into the primary weapon of these forces during the second. In the late 1930s, tank design was considerably more advanced in all areas than during World War I, and advances continued throughout the war in increasing speed, armour and firepower. At the start of the war, most armies considered the tank to be the best weapon against men, and developed special-purpose tanks to that effect. This line of thinking was all but negated by the poor performance of the relatively light early tank armaments against armour, and Germany's doctrine of avoiding armoured-versus-tank combat; the latter factor, along with Germany's use of combined arms, were among the key elements of their highly successful blitzkrieg tactics across Poland and France. Many nations improved their tanks, including indirect artillery, anti-tank guns (both towed and self-propelled), mines, short-ranged infantry antitank weapons, and other tanks were utilized. Even with large-scale mechanization of the various armies, the infantry remained the backbone of all forces, and throughout the war, most infantry equipment was similar to that utilized in World War I. However the United States became the first country to arm its soldiers with a semi-automatic rifle, in this case the M-1 Garand. Some of the primary advances though, were the widespread incorporation of portable machine guns, a notable example being the German MG42, and various submachine guns which were well suited to close-quarters combat in urban and jungle settings. The assault rifle, a late war development which incorporated many of the best features of the rifle and submachine gun, became the standard postwar infantry weapon for nearly all armed forces.

In terms of communications, most of the major belligerents attempted to solve the problems of complexity and security presented by utilizing large codebooks for cryptography with the creation of various ciphering machines, the most well known being the German Enigma machine. SIGINT (signals intelligence) was the countering process of decryption, with the notable examples being the British ULTRA and the Allied breaking of Japanese naval codes. Another important aspect of military intelligence was the use of deception operations, which the Allies successfully used on several occasions to great effect, such as operations Mincemeat and Bodyguard, which diverted German attention and forces away from the Allied invasions of Sicily and Normandy respectively. Other important technological and engineering feats achieved during, or as a result of, the war include the worlds first programmable computers (Z3, Colossus, and ENIAC), guided missiles and modern rockets, the Manhattan Project's development of nuclear weapons, the development of artificial harbours and oil pipelines under the English Channel.

Nazism, officially National Socialism (German: Nationalsozialismus), refers to the ideology and practices of the National Socialist German Workers’ Party under Adolf Hitler, and the policies adopted by the dictatorial government of Nazi Germany from 1933 to 1945.
Nazism is often considered by scholars to be a form of fascism. While it incorporated elements from both left and right-wing politics, the Nazis formed most of their alliances on the right. The Nazis were one of several historical groups that used the term National Socialism to describe themselves, and in the 1920s they became the largest such group. The Nazi Party presented its program in the 25 point National Socialist Program in 1920. Among the key elements of Nazism were anti-parliamentarism, Pan-Germanism, racism, collectivism, eugenics, antisemitism, anti-communism, totalitarianism and opposition to economic liberalism and political liberalism.

In the 1930s, Nazism was not a monolithic movement, but rather a (mainly German) combination of various ideologies and philosophies which centered around nationalism, anti-communism, traditionalism and the importance of the ethnestate. Groups such as Strasserism and Black Front were part of the early Nazi movement. Their motivations were triggered over anger about the Treaty of Versailles and what was considered to have been a Jewish/communist conspiracy to humble Germany at the end of the World War I. Germany's post-war ills were critical to the formation of the ideology and its criticisms of the post-war Weimar Republic. The Nazi Party came to power in Germany in 1933.

In response to the instability created by the Great Depression, the Nazis sought a Third Way managed economy that was neither capitalism nor communism. Nazi rule effectively ended on May 7, 1945, V-E Day, when the Nazis unconditionally surrendered to the Allied Powers, who took over Germany's administration until Germany could form its own democratic government.

Terminology

The term Nazi is derived from the first two syllables of Nationalsozialistische Deutsche Arbeiterpartei, the official German language name of the National Socialist German Workers’ Party (commonly known in English as the Nazi Party). Party members rarely referred to themselves as Nazis, and instead used the official term, Nationalsozialisten (National Socialists). The word mirrors the term Sozi, a common and slightly derogatory term for members of the Social Democratic Party of Germany (Sozialdemokratische Partei Deutschlands). When Adolf Hitler took power, the use of the term Nazi almost disappeared from Germany, although it was still used by opponents in Austria.

History

National Socialist philosophy came together during a time of crisis in Germany; the nation had lost World War I in 1918, but had also been forced to sign the Treaty of Versailles, a devastating capitulation, and was in the midst of a period of great economic depression and instability. The Dolchstosslegende (or “stab in the back”).# described by the National Socialists, featured a claim that the war effort was sabotaged internally, in large part by Germany’s Jews. The National Socialists suggested that a lack of patriotism had led to Germany’s defeat (for one, the front line was not on German soil at the time of the armistice). In politics, criticism was directed at the Social Democrats and the Weimar government (Drittes Reich 1919–1933), which the National Socialists accused of selling out the country. The concept of Dolchstosslegende led many to look at Jews and other so-called “non-Germans” living in Germany as having extraneous loyalties, thereby raising antisemitic sentiments and the Judenfrage (German for “Jewish Question”), at first seen as a Volkisch movement and a desire to create a Greater Germany were strong.

On January 5, 1919, the party that eventually became the Nazi Party was formed under the name German Workers’ Party (DAP) by Anton Drexler, along with six other members. German intelligence officers sent Hitler, a corporal at the time, to investigate the German Workers’ Party. As a result, party members invited him to join after he impressed them with the speaking ability he displayed while arguing with party members. Hitler joined the party in September 1919, and he became the propaganda head of the party. He was renamed the National Socialist German Workers’ Party on February 24, 1920, against Hitler’s choice of Social Revolutionary Party. Hitler forced Drexler out and became the party leader on July 29, 1921.

Although Adolf Hitler had joined the Nazi Party in September 1919, and published Mein Kampf ("My Struggle") in 1925 and 1926, the seminal ideas of National Socialism had their roots in groups and individuals of decades past. These include the Völkisch movement and its religious-occult counterpart, Ariosophy. Among the various Ariosophic lodge-like groups, only the Thule Society is related to the origins of the Nazi party.

The term Nazism refers to the ideology of the National Socialist German Workers’ Party and its worldview which permeated German society (and to some degree European and American society) during the party’s years as the German government (1933 to 1945). Free elections in 1932 under Germany’s Weimar Republic made the NSDAP the largest parliamentary faction; no similar party in any country at that time had achieved comparable electoral success. Hitler’s January 30, 1933 appointment as Chancellor of Germany and his subsequent consolidation of dictatorial power marked the beginning of Nazi Germany. During its first year in power, the NSDAP announced the Tausendjähriges Reich (“Thousand Years’ Empire”) or Drittes Reich (“Third Reich”), a putative successor to the Holy Roman Empire and the German Empire.

During the night of February 27, 1933, the Reichstag fire provided Hitler with a convenient excuse for suppressing his opponents. The following day, he persuaded President Paul von Hindenburg to sign an emergency decree suspending civil liberties and stripping the power of the federal German states. Opponents were imprisoned first in improvised camps (wilde Lager) and later in an organized system of Nazi concentration camps. On March 23, the Reichstag passed an “Enabling Law” which granted Hitler dictatorial powers. Unions were abolished and political parties, other than the National Socialists, forbidden.

Having dealt with his political enemies, Hitler moved against his rivals in the party, principally those allied with Ernst Röhm, leader of the Sturmbteilung (known as SA or “brownshirts”) and Gregor Strasser, leader of the Nazi left wing. Between June 30 and July 2, 1934, these were purged in the so-called Night of the Long Knives. With this, Hitler assured the support of the powerful Reichswehr. After the death of President Paul von Hindenburg on August 2, there was no one left who could present an effective challenge to Nazi power.

The Nazi Party had been anti-Semitic from the beginning, and shortly after seizing power had attempted a boycott against the Jews (see Nazi boycott of Jewish businesses). Official measures against the Jews had been limited by the reluctance of President Hindenburg, but the Nuremberg Laws, proclaimed by Hitler at the 1935 Nazi rally in Nuremberg, provided a legal basis for systematic persecution. Visible signs of anti-Semitism were removed during the 1936 Summer Olympics, but replaced shortly thereafter.
Foreign reaction
During the mid to late 1930s the British and French governments generally held a stance of appeasement for the Nazi regime and its breaching of Treaty of Versailles through rearmament. Though some figures in Britain and France they had begun to criticize this and Germany's embrace of totalitarianism and in Britain especially, Nazi Germany’s policies towards the Jews. Important reasons behind this appeasement included, first, the erroneous assumption that Hitler had no desire to precipitate another world war, even though in Mein Kampf, he explained the party’s program to the voters in detail, describing World War I very much as he actually fought it ( overtly and explicitly committing himself to World War II in precise detail) and second, when the rebirth of the German military could no longer be ignored, a concern that neither Britain nor France was yet ready to fight an all-out war against Germany.
The second reason, that the West was not ready for war with Germany is, as Churchill pointed out, unsatisfactory, for the appeasement program worsened that problem, for example by removing Czechoslovakia’s resources from the anti Nazi side, and adding them to the Nazi side. As Churchill said of appeasement:

_You were given the choice between war and dishonour. You chose dishonour, and you will have war. If you will not fight for the right when you can easily win without bloodshed; if you will not fight when your victory will be sure and not too costly, you may come to the moment when you will have to fight with all the odds are against you and only a precarious chance of survival. There may even be a worse case. You may have to fight when there is no hope of victory, because it is better to perish than live as slaves._

In 1936, Nazi Germany and Japan entered into the Anti-Comintern Pact, aimed directly at countering Soviet foreign policy. This alliance later became the basis for the Tripartite Pact with Italy, the foundation of the Axis Powers. The three nations united in their rabid opposition to communism, as well as their militaristic, racist regimes, but they failed to coordinate their military efforts effectively.

**WW2**

The Nazis were determined to retrieve the territories that Germany had lost after the Versailles Treaty and create a powerful German realm. They wanted this realm to include Danzig, which since the Versailles Treaty, the state of Poland had had limited rights towards. When diplomacy failed to secure Danzig's return to Germany, the Nazis got lucky. The communist Soviet Union, an unlikely ally, wanted a non-aggression pact and promised to assist Germany if there was war with Poland. In 1939, Germany attacked Poland and France and the United Kingdom declared war on Germany. Then, the Soviet Union attacked Poland from the east. Poland was defeated but the war continued.

In 1940, Germany attacked and defeated the French and British continental forces in France. France became an occupied country. The Battle of Britain followed, but Germany soon turned its attention to the Eastern Front and achieved that if the Soviet Union fell, the United Kingdom would come to terms with Germany.

In 1941, Germany and its allies launched Operation Barbarossa against the Soviet Union. In spite of its initial success, the Soviets were able to turn the tide. After the Battle of Stalingrad, the Soviets launched a powerful offensive and quickly advanced towards Germany from the East. In 1944, the United States and the United Kingdom landed in France as part of a major offensive against the Germans from the west. Within a year, Germany was occupied and defeated and World War II in Europe was over. The victors declared the Nazi Party (NSDAP) a criminal organization and the Nazi regime came to an end.

Today, in the Federal Republic of Germany, Nazism is outlawed as a political ideology, as are forms of iconography and propaganda associated with Nazism (such as the Swastika) have acquired overwhelmingly negative connotations in Europe and North America.

Nazism has come to stand for a belief in the superiority of an Aryan race, an abstraction of the Germanic peoples. During Hitler’s time, the Nazis advocated a strong, centralized government under the Führer and claimed to defend Germany and the German people (including those of German ethnicity abroad) against Communism and so-called Jewish subversion. Ultimately, the Nazis sought to create a largely homogeneous and autarkic ethnic state, absorbing the ideas of Pan-Germanism. Historians often disagree on the principal interests of the Nazi Party and whether Nazism can be considered a coherent ideology. The original National Socialists claimed that there would be no program that would bind them, and that they wanted to reject any established world view. Still, as Hitler played a major role in the development of the Nazi Party from its early stages and rose to become the movement’s indisputable iconographic figurehead, much of what is thought to be “Nazism” is in line with Hitler’s own political beliefs – the ideology and the man remain largely interchangeable in the public eye. Some dispute whether Hitler’s views relate directly to those surrounding the movement; the problem is exacerbated by the inability of various self-proclaimed Nazis and Nazi groups to decide on a universal ideology. But if Nazism is the world view promulgated in Mein Kampf, that world view is consistent and coherent, being characterized essentially by a conception of history as a race struggle; the Führerprinzip; anti-Semitism; and the need to acquire Lebensraum (living space) at the expense of the Soviet Union. The core concept of Nazism is that the German Volk is under attack from a judeo-bolshevist conspiracy, and must become united, disciplined and self-sacrificing (id est must submit to Nazi leadership) in order to win.

Hitler's political beliefs were formulated in Mein Kampf. His ideology had three main thoughts: a conception of history as a race struggle influenced by Social Darwinism; antisemitism; and the idea that Germany needed to acquire land from Russia. His antisemitism, coupled with his anti-Communism, gave the grounds of his conspiracy theory of “judeo-bolshevism”; Hitler first began to develop his views through observations he made while living in Vienna from 1907 to 1913. He concluded that a racial, religious, and cultural hierarchy existed, and he placed “Aryans” at the top as the ultimate superior race, while Jews and “Gypsies” were people at the bottom. He vaguely examined and questioned the policies of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, where, as a citizen by birth, he had lived during the Empire’s last thrones. He believed that its ethnic and linguistic diversity had weakened the Empire and helped to create dissent. Furthermore, he saw democracy as a destabilizing force because it placed power in the hands of, amongst others, ethnic minorities who he claimed, “weakened and destabilized” the Empire by dividing it against itself. Hitler’s political beliefs were affected by World War I and the 1917 October Revolution, and were further modified between 1920 and 1923. He formulated them definitively in Mein Kampf.
In Russia, the Bolshevik revolution triggered a violent civil war between 'Reds' and 'Whites' that lasted until 1922. More Russians died in this conflict - not only in combat, but also as a result of terror, famine and disease - than in the Great War.

Fearful of a Communist tide sweeping westwards over Europe, many countries, including Britain, offered military assistance to the anti-Bolshevik forces. However, given the costs and dangers of a prolonged campaign in the East, the Allies agreed to withdraw their troops from Russia towards the end of the Paris peace conference. The path was left open for the eventual triumph of the Bolsheviks and the subsequent establishment of the Soviet Union as a fixed part of the international community.

**European civil war**

The aftermath of the First World War had a number of themes common to the countries that had fought in it: the decline of monarchism and the concomitant rise of republicanism; the emergence of new 'nation states'; the growth of unemployment, inflation and general economic instability; and the continued use of violence to resolve political disputes.

In too many places, 'peace' still meant conflict by other means. The 'European civil war' did not end in November 1918.

During the First World War several world leaders such as Woodrow Wilson and Jan Smuts, began advocating the need for an international organization to preserve peace and settle disputes by arbitration. In September, 1916, Robert Cecil, a member of the British government, wrote a memorandum where he argued that civilisation could survive only if it could develop an international system that would insure peace.

When peace negotiations began in October, 1918, Woodrow Wilson insisted that his Fourteen Points should serve as a basis for the signing of the Armistice. This included the formation of the League of Nations.

The constitution of the League of Nations was adopted by the Paris Peace Conference in April, 1919. The League's headquarters were in Geneva and its first secretary-general was Sir Eric Drummond. The Covenant (Constitution) of the League of Nations called for collective security and the peaceful settlement of disputes by arbitration. It was decided that any country that resorted to war would be subjected to economic sanctions.

The main organs of the League of Nations were the General Assembly, the Council and the Secretariat. The General Assembly, which met once every year consisted of representatives of all the member states and decided on the organization's policies. The Council included ten permanent members (Britain, France, Italy and Japan) and four (later nine) others elected by the General Assembly every three years. The Secretariat prepared the agenda and published reports of meetings.

As a result of the decision by the US Congress not to ratify the Versailles Treaty, the United States never joined the League of Nations. Others joined but later left the organization: Brazil (1926), Japan (1933), Italy (1937). Germany was only a member from 1926 to 1933, and the Soviet Union from 1934 to 1940.

The League of Nations had no armed forces and had to rely on boycotts (sanctions) to control the behaviour of member states. In January 1923 France occupied the Ruhr. Six months later Italy bombed the Greek island of Corfu. When the League of Nations discussed these events, the governments of France and Italy threatened to withdraw from the organization. As a result, the League of Nations decided not to take any action. Konni Zilliacus, a member of the Information Section of the League Secretariat, wrote to his friend Norman Angell: “I feel depressed and fed up. Who could have imagined things would turn out as badly as this?”

In 1924 the League of Nations was given a boost when James Ramsay MacDonald, Arthur Henderson and Edouard Herriot, leading politicians in Britain and France, visited Geneva in 1924. Hugh Dalton, wrote enthusiastically, "The League seemed to have come to life again, and to have gained a new significance."

The League of Nations also had success in adverting wars in the border disputes between Bulgaria-Greece (1925), Iraq-Turkey (1925-26) and Poland-Lithuania (1927). The League of Nations also had noticeable success in the areas of drugs control, refugee work and famine relief.

In 1929 foreign ministers of all the main European nations attended meetings of the League of Nations. Mary Hamilton, a Labour Party delegate to the League of Nations wrote: "Geneva in 1929 and 1930 was a genuine International clearing-house of ideas... There was hard work, and there was goodwill."
programme of Mussolini and his National Fascist Party. The emergence of the British Union of Fascists (BUF) severely damaged the fortunes of the British Fascists, as did the passing of a series of public order laws in the 1930s that banned uniforms and curtailed the right to demonstrate. The BUF claimed the bulk of the old movement’s membership in 1932, when Neil Francis Hawkins split from Lintorn-Orman and moved towards Oswald Mosley.

In a bid to reverse their decline the party adopted a strongly anti-Semitic platform, Thurlow notes: 'it was noticeable that the BF became increasingly anti-Semitic in its death throes.' Additionally, the BF became outspoken supporters of Hitler's Germany. However, the loss of members to the BUF had was too great a blow to recover from. The few remaining members struggled on until the death of Lintorn-Orman in May 1935. The party followed her in October of the same year.

**Common Misconceptions**

It is often reported that the BUF was one of the parties to join with Mosley to form the BUF. However, the party was split on such a move and Lintorn-Orman eventually vetoed it. This caused Neil Francis Hawkins and several other members to leave for Mosley's group with the BUF continuing as an independent organisation.

The BUF was launched in October 1932.

**Background**

Oswald Mosley had been a junior minister of Ramsay MacDonald’s Labour government advising on rising unemployment. In 1930 he issued his ‘Mosley Memorandum’: a proto-Keynesian programme of policies designed to tackle the unemployment problem. He resigned in early 1931 when these were rejected and formed the New Party, with policies based on his memorandum. Despite winning 16% of the vote at a by-election in Ashton-under-Lyne in early 1931, the party failed to achieve electoral success.

During 1931 New Party policies became increasingly influenced by Fascism. In January 1932, Mosley’s conversion to Fascism was confirmed when he visited Benito Mussolini in Italy. He would up the New Party in April 1932 but kept the youth movement as the basis for a Fascist fighting force. He spent summer that year writing a Fascist programme; *The Greater Britain*. The BUF was launched in October 1932.

**Character**

**Imagery**

Mosley modelled himself on Benito Mussolini and the F.D.R. in Mussolini's National Fascist Party in Italy. Mussolini and, later, Mosley instituted black uniformed members, earning them the nickname “Blackshirts.” The BUF was anti-communist and protectionist, and proposed replacing a parliamentary democracy with elected executives having jurisdiction over specific industries – a system similar to the corporatism of the Italian fascists. Unlike the Italian system, British fascist corporatism promised democracy that would replace the House of Lords with elected executives drawn from major industries, the army, and colonies. The House of Commons was to be reduced to allow for a faster, "less factionist" democracy.

The BUF’s programme and ideology were outlined in Mosley’s *Great Britain* (1932), and A. Raven Thompson’s *The Coming Corporate State* (1938).

Many BUF policies were built on isolationism, prohibiting trade by British nationals outside the British Empire. Mosley proposed this would protect the British economy from the flux of the world market, especially during the Great Depression, and prevent "cheap slave competition from abroad."

**Prominence**

The BUF claimed 50,000 members at one point and the *Daily Mail* was an early supporter, running the headline "Hurrah for the Blackshirts!".

Opinion was divided on the BUF's black-shirted followers; in some quarters, their unified appearance, and the vision of militant Britishness, won supporters. Others found them absurd. P.G. Wodehouse based the "amateur dictator" Roderick Spode and his Black Shorts, in *The Code of the Woosters*, on Mosley and the BUF.

Despite considerable and sometimes violent resistance from Jewish people, the Labour Party, democrats and the Communist Party of Great Britain, the BUF found a following in the East End of London, where in the London County Council elections of 1937 it obtained good results in Bethnal Green, Shoreditch and Limehouse. However, the BUF never faced a General Election. Having lost the funding of newspaper magnate, Lord Rothermere, that it previously enjoyed, at the 1935 General Election the party urged voters to abstain, offering "Fascism Next Time". There never was a "next time", as the next General Election was not held until July 1945, by which time World War II in Europe had ended and fascism had been discredited.

Towards the middle of the 1930s, the BUF's violent activities and its perceived alignment with the German Nazi party began to alienate some middle-class supporters and membership decreased. At the Olympia rally in London, in 1934, BUF stewards were in a violent confrontation with militant communists, and this caused the *Daily Mail* to withdraw support.

**Final years and legacy**
era that saw Churchill as a war hero and Chamberlain as a mediocre politician, a perception which has only too recently begun to alter, and therefore, as it also seems to give no political bias at all, it can also be suggested that this source, like source 7, is more unbiased and educative than Churchill's persuasive paragraph in source 7. Neither source is trying to persuade anyone to agree with their viewpoints as much as the former Prime Minister, and even if they are putting forward their viewpoints on what happened with the Munich Settlement, these are done so without much personal connection to the issue and more thorough research, being taken from the writings of professional historians' work. Also, even though Source 8 is closer to the end of the war, neither are written in the direct post-war period, and so are further detached from the event, and therefore, less likely to include any emotional connections.

However, there is some disagreement between the sources and, whilst source 8 calls all “British statesman” mocking terms “selfish and cynical,” it does not expand on anything further than the settlement being a “triumph of British policy.” There are no practical or direct positives or negatives given about the Munich Settlement, concentrating instead on it as a triumph of principle. Therefore, it does not contradict anything of Source 7, and Churchill may be correct in giving some of the more practical cons of the Munich Settlement. The two sources, 7 and 8, are completely opposed in their viewpoints, as well as their reasoning, with one suggesting that it was a disaster for the military, and the latter implying that it was a triumph of the Great British political opinion. Indeed, A J P Taylor states that it was also a triumph for “those who had preached equal justice” as well as “those who had denounced the harshness...of Versailles.” Neither of these, whilst an emotional triumph, would have given Britain any more than morale in the gloom of the depression, and with war inevitable, albeit attempts to postpone it, there were more important things to think of than the elation of the British public and politicians. Therefore, Churchill’s opinion may be relevant to Taylor’s, for the only reasons given in Taylor’s source are not likely to have aided Britain much in any way. Also, it must be considered that the elation of the public and the politicians alike was short lived when Germany did, in fact, refuse to cease their invasion of Poland, which, in turn, led to World War Two.

Therefore, to conclude, if Churchill in Source 7 would have been correct in placing the military importance as higher priority than the egos of the politicians, then the settlement at Munich would indeed, have served as a disaster for Britain. It decreased our potential military resources, which were so much needed at that time, being inferior to the overpowering Germany of 1939. It also showed that Britain could be manipulated, as well as France, who followed whatever the British politicians were saying. In the battle of their own voice, for they were afraid of a German invasion. However, Chamberlain and his military adviser were oblivious to the threat of war, and this is made aware in Source 9, where the Chiefs acknowledge Hitler's rampage will not stop. This, then, can be cause for saying that the Munich Settlement was not a disaster as was, in fact, a triumph, for it allowed Britain time to raise their forces with the critical amendment come from supporters of Churchill, who was made Prime Minister due to Chamberlain's supposed failure to prevent war, or, as shown in Source 7, from Churchill himself. In an age of viewing him as a hero, and Chamberlain as a failure, there have been distorted views on the success of Munich, and the pact has to be looked at in the context of the time, not with the hindsight of seeing Hitler's ignorance. At that moment, Chamberlain had no other option, and the agreement brought a sense of pride and morale to Britain, who were struggling in the deprivation from the depression of the 'hungry thirties' and only starting to get back on their feet. There was little to no chance of Britain being able to start a war with Germany over a country as insignificant to them as Czechoslovakia, and instead they concentrated their efforts on more important things, as shown by the defence of their allies in Poland by starting war with Germany when Poland was invaded. British policy, therefore, can be seen as a “triumph” due to the Munich Settlement, as it was the most appropriate route to take at that moment in time, and the loss of any military gains was only a potential loss, not an entirety.

“The period from after the declaration of war to 11th September 1940 was characterised by defeat and disaster.” To what extent do you agree with this statement?

On the 1st September 1939, a week after Germany had allied herself with Soviet Russia through the Molotov-Ribbentrop pact, Germany felt safe and brave enough to continue the plans it had been waiting for: to invade the country of Poland. Britain had warned Hitler not to invade, lest he provoke Chamberlain into reacting. Two days later, on the 3rd September 1939, Britain declared war on Germany. An array of varying tactics and actions were enacted by Britain to ‘defend’ herself, often with changing degrees of success, after the declaration. Yet it can be argued that these actions were ones of defeat and disaster, where British strength was not in the slightest equal to Germany’s. However, evidence to argue against this suggests that not all the defence planned by Britain was not in her favour, and at times victory was achievable.

The anti-climax of the ‘Phoney war’, however, did not give Britain a flying start in the early beginnings of the conflict; already there was confusion, weakness and limitation set out before them. Poor planning and a lack of action made the British government look powerless and weak, or, at the very best, doubtful and unconvinced of Germany’s true strength. The British Royal